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Educational News and Editorial Comment

WORLD-EDUCATION IN THE ECONOMIC CRISIS

It is generally known that the current economic recession is all but world wide. Many of us, aware of conditions at home, have wondered how the schools abroad have fared. James F. Abel, chief of the Division of Foreign School Systems in the United States Office of Education, has made available through a recent issue of the *United States Daily* information concerning schools in a number of other countries as they have been affected by the economic situation. The information was supplied in response to a circular sent to educational authorities in the foreign countries asking for, among other items, the amounts of educational expenditures in the years 1927-32, inclusive; the relative effect of the depression on education as compared with the effect on other national activities; the general effect on number of schools, size of classes, number of teachers, and attendance at all levels of instruction; and the effect on the erection of new schools or the reconditioning of old buildings. We quote most of the summary of the situation, omitting evidence for a few countries only. Schools in some of these countries appear not to have been affected as much as have schools in the United States.

Next-door neighbors first. Canada is sparsely settled, is growing in population, and is developing its resources. The depression came more than a year later there than in the United States and in milder form.

Generally the provinces are withholding school-building programs and in some cases reducing salaries, but school attendance is increasing and educational expansion is slowed down, not halted. Education less than other governmental activities is suffering from budget retrenchments. . . .

In the large province of Ontario "no schools have been closed, and there has been a marked improvement in attendance at all schools. School boards have erected new buildings and improved old buildings only where conditions demanded such action."

The national government of Mexico provides about two-thirds of all the money spent for education in that country. It seems determined to carry on its educational renaissance despite the depression. The American consulate reports:

"The retrenchment policy of the government is not necessarily aimed to affect education, since the government's program is to expand educational activities in the country. . . . School expenditures from the national treasury have steadily increased since 1927. . . .

"While the depression has no doubt had some effect on the expansion of educational activities in Mexico, its general effect is thought not to have been felt so much as in other branches of governmental activities."

With respect to other Latin American countries, Uruguay has continued its educational program almost entirely unaffected by the depression, except that new building has been limited. The 1933 budget for the National Board of Education of Argentina compares favorably with those for 1931 and 1932. . . .

No special changes of importance have come in the educational situation in Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, and Haiti. In Peru, El Salvador, and Honduras the schools have suffered. The revolution in Brazil, the civil war and the earthquake in Nicaragua, and political disturbances in Cuba, more than the economic depression, have interrupted educational progress.

For the European area, from Albania comes the cheerful statement, "There is no period of depression in Albania."

Italy is carrying on its expanding financial program, and education should continue to receive its share of the increasing expenditure, since it is the avowed policy of the government to reduce illiteracy. Further:

"There has been a steady increase in the last few years in the number of pupils and teachers in the elementary, secondary, and higher schools, together with an increase in the number of buildings for educational purposes."

Luxemburg decreased its 1932 budget "within sane limits," and the government declares that education will not be permitted to suffer in appreciable degree.

The Irish Free State gives out the emphatic declaration:

"The present national policy is one of economic self-development and of improved social services. Budget increases under these heads are offset by economies in other directions and by increased taxation.

"Education is at present seeing the fulfilment of a big reform program begun by the Irish government in 1922 and now nearing completion. National policy

may possibly require some curtailment of educational expenditure, especially in respect of the emoluments of primary teachers, but so far education expenditure remains unaffected." . . .

Under the guidance of the Ministry of Education the schools of Poland have been able to care for increasing attendance in the face of lessened national appropriations.

The situation in Spain is complicated by the establishment of the republic and the closing of large numbers of private sectarian schools. The effects of the economic depression cannot be determined.

The government of England is making drastic cuts in its budget, including education and the school services, and is proposing higher fees for secondary schools.

France, to the contrary, is expecting to make all secondary schooling free of tuition and even in Morocco is holding educational appropriations at the level they have reached by steady increases in the past five years.

Japan is retrenching in everything but military and naval expenditures. Coincident with the termination of the era of prosperity, the country completed a school-building program, and partly due to this, national appropriations for education have decreased, but beyond that education is expected to bear its share of the cuts. . . .

Australia, like Canada, is increasing in population. More money is needed yearly to provide schools for the greater number of children. Each of the six states has its own school system, which it maintains mostly from state funds. In 1930, by general agreement in the commonwealth, budgets were cut some 20 per cent. Education had to take a share—not an undue one—in the economies, with the result that school-building has about stopped, and teachers' salaries have been reduced.

The national treasury of New Zealand bears nearly all the expense of education and social services in that country. The expenditures for these of £4,133,242 in 1929-30 were reduced to £3,415,518 in 1931-32.

Building and maintenance charges are kept to a minimum, but all the public schools are in operation and very few private schools have been forced to close. Attendance has increased at secondary schools and higher institutions.

INDIVIDUALIZATION WITHIN THE TEACHING GROUP

A committee of junior and senior high school principals in Philadelphia have for some time been studying the problem of individualization. The first report of this committee, issued almost two years ago, dealt with certain administrative phases of individualization involved in the organization of ungraded classes, short-unit courses, and ability groups. More recently this committee turned its attention to individualization within the teaching group or class. The

later study, initiated by the same group of principals and reported in a bulletin of the School District of Philadelphia (*Individualization of Instruction: Devices for Use within the Teaching Group*, credited to Philip A. Boyer, director of the Division of Educational Research and Results), was carried out by subcommittees of department heads in commerce, English, foreign languages, mathematics, and social studies. Each of the subcommittees observed practices within its own subject field. In small groups these department heads visited classrooms in thirteen senior high schools and three junior high schools, where lessons demonstrating devices for individualization were observed. Altogether more than a hundred classrooms were visited.

The devices observed were classified under three general headings, namely, (1) differentiated unit assignments, (2) grouping of pupils within the classroom, and (3) individual remedial exercises. In the first group three main types of differentiation were identified: common assignment differentiated in rate of progress in subtopics, minimum-maximum assignments devised so that pupils progress at different rates and finish at different levels, and the common group objective with special assignment for each pupil. Four of the five kinds of groups of pupils described are groups with adjusted assignments, subcommittees for special assignments, groups for remedial instruction, and mutual-aid committees. Under individual remedial exercises are described individual error analysis, diagnostic tests and individual practice exercises, and pupil tutors. The bulletin contains tables of many instances of devices actually found in use in the schools.

In bringing the report to a close, the author of the bulletin makes the following recommendations.

1. The wide range of possible achievement, even in classes grouped by ability, makes further differentiation of activities within the class desirable if individual needs are to be met successfully.
2. Sufficient variety of individualization device is now in use in the Philadelphia high schools to make it evident that in almost every classroom some devices can be adopted suitable to the specific requirements of individualized instruction.
3. Differentiated activities are not necessary or desirable for every pupil during his entire stay in school. However, devices which provide more fully for

individual differences than the "recitation" or class conference method should be used frequently.

4. A broader range of achievement should be offered more often. The offered range of achievement should equal or exceed the range of ability within the class. Wider differentiations are possible through effective use of devices such as minimum-maximum assignments, especially where the maximum is as extensive as the abilities represented in the class.

5. Qualitative differences in activities should be provided more frequently than seems to be the general practice. The organization of groupings within the classroom is an effective device for this purpose.

6. The use of pupil assistants in instructing other pupils is a desirable method of raising achievement levels. However, such activities should be organized only where both pupil assisted and the pupil assisting will receive comparable benefit. Specific caution is urged in the matter of controlling the accuracy and teaching quality of pupil aid.

7. Prior to the introduction of an individualization device not previously used by the teacher, the following steps are desirable: (a) There should be conferences with teachers who have used the device successfully. . . . (b) The device should be restricted to a few classes for one or two terms, and the results evaluated. . . . (c) Upon the results obtained by trial, difficulties should be anticipated and steps taken to avoid their occurrence upon more widespread use of the individualized procedure.

8. Sympathetic co-operation and ingenuity of teachers must be continued in order to utilize fully the present equipment and supplies until such time as additional material is proved to be essential and its provision becomes feasible.

A co-operative project of this sort appears to be an admirable device for supervision.

THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL PLAN IN INDIANAPOLIS

The *Public School News* is a new publication of the Board of School Commissioners of the City of Indianapolis, the cost of which is being borne by the Indianapolis Federation of Public School Teachers. The purpose is analogous to that of many similar periodicals: "to provide a concise, comprehensive review of the present status of the Indianapolis public schools." Number 1 of Volume I, recently issued, contains, among many other items aiming to enlighten the public concerning local school affairs, a brief report of the progress made in the system toward junior high school reorganization. The type of the effort at reorganization is sufficiently unique to warrant reporting it here, partly in paraphrase and partly by direct quotation.

That the plan is one of internal reorganization instead of external rearrangement of grades is suggested by the title of the statement, which is "Junior High School Work Goes Forward without Extra Cost." First steps in the reorganization are reported to have been under way for two years, and it will require at least two years more to make the change complete. The plan calls for the reorganization of the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades into a "junior high school division" of the system without shifting pupils from schools in which the housing is on the 8-4 plan.

As to organization, it is the plan to leave the seventh- and eighth-grade pupils where they are now housed. The ninth grade is to be organized as a subunit of the senior high school. The teachers who are best prepared to carry out the junior high school idea will be selected from the general high-school faculty for the ninth-grade work. The shops and laboratories of the high-school plants will be available for junior high school purposes. In short, all the facilities of our large high-school units will be used in the ninth year to provide exploratory, tryout, and guidance activities in order that all pupils concerned may be prepared to enter the tenth year, the beginning of the senior high school, with guidance and purpose essential to making the last three years of public education highly successful.

The procedure contrasts strikingly with that in systems in which junior high school reorganization is effected, district by district until the entire system has been transformed, in new plants housing either separate junior high schools or junior-senior high schools. The reorganization in Indianapolis is being effected by the school executives of the city, working with some three hundred teachers in the grades concerned. The belief is that a number of the advantages of the junior high school plan have already been achieved and that others will follow.

We cannot doubt that, when the task is undertaken with insight and courage, much of what is represented in junior high school reorganization can be incorporated in schools housed in buildings intended for operation on the 8-4 plan. The obstacles are greatest in the seventh and the eighth grades of small elementary schools, and in these grades when they are housed in older elementary-school plants of such a character that the buildings impose limitations on the scope of the junior high school curriculum. The least that can be said for such a plan of reorganization is that it is an excellent

preparation for complete junior high school reorganization when times permit making the outlays for the new buildings and other external arrangements which usually accompany the installation of the junior high school plan. There are school systems with all pupils of appropriate grades now housed in junior high schools or junior-senior high schools that would be farther along toward genuine reorganization if moving into the structure had been preceded by the kind of activity reported to be going on in Indianapolis.

NEW NUMBERS OF THE "ACHIEVEMENTS OF CIVILIZATION"

The December *School Review* carried in this section an item relating to a new series of brochures intended as basic readings in the social studies. The series was described as being prepared under the auspices of the Committee on Materials of Instruction of the American Council on Education with the co-operation of the Subcommittee on Political Education of the American Political Science Association. The brochures were further described as containing scholarly information of the highest type not elsewhere available for the lower schools, information which is imparted in a style that will appeal to pupils in the upper grades and in the high school. In the interval since December three new numbers in the series have appeared, namely, *The Story of Our Calendar*, *Telling Time throughout the Centuries*, and *Rules of the Road*. These numbers are priced the same as the first three, that is, at ten cents for the brochures containing thirty-two pages (the first and third in the order here named) and at twenty cents for a brochure of sixty-four pages (the second brochure). The following discounts are allowed for purchase in quantities: 10 per cent for twenty-five copies or more of any combination; 20 per cent on fifty copies or more; 25 per cent on four hundred copies or more; special discounts on larger quantities. Orders should be sent to the Committee on Materials of Instruction of the American Council on Education, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.

THE MONOGRAPHS OF THE NATIONAL SURVEY OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

The report of the National Survey of Secondary Education is beginning to appear in print. At this writing one of the twenty-eight monographs in which the report is being published has come from the

press, and others are near the point of release. Because of the magnitude of the task of editing and printing the more than four thousand pages in the whole report, all the monographs are not likely to be available for at least five or six months, but individual monographs will be issued at irregular intervals throughout the period. For the most part the different monographs are being published in the order in which the manuscripts have been made ready for the printer rather than in the order of the numbers assigned to the monographs. Because the completion of the summary monograph has had to wait on the completion of all others, it will be one of the last to be issued. The whole task is being done in the Government Printing Office at the same time that this office is responsible for a vast array of other federal publications.

The monographs in the list below that will appear earlier than others are Numbers 5, 8, 10, 13, 15, 17, 18, 20-25, 27, and 28.

The large amount allotted from the budget of the survey for printing the report has made it possible to set very reasonable prices on the monographs. These prices are indicated after each title in the following list. The cost of the complete set of twenty-eight monographs is \$3.80. Orders may be placed with the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. On the orders should be indicated the number of the United States Office of Education Bulletin (No. 17, 1932) *together with the numbers of the monographs desired*. Orders should be accompanied by remittance unless the coupon or the deposit system, which will be explained on request by the Superintendent of Documents or by the Office of Education, is used. The list of monographs, including numbers, titles, authors, and prices, follows.

1. *Summary*. Leonard V. Koos and Staff. \$0.15.
2. *The Horizontal Organization of Secondary Education—A Comparison of Comprehensive and Specialized Schools*. Grayson N. Kefauver, Victor H. Noll, and C. Elwood Drake. \$0.20.
3. *Part-Time Secondary Schools*. Grayson N. Kefauver, Victor H. Noll, and C. Elwood Drake. \$0.10.
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5. *The Reorganization of Secondary Education*. Francis T. Spaulding, O. I. Frederick, and Leonard V. Koos. \$0.40.

6. *The Smaller Secondary Schools*. Emery N. Ferriss, W. H. Gaumnitz, and P. Roy Brammell. \$0.15.
7. *Secondary Education for Negroes*. Ambrose Caliver. \$0.10.
8. *District Organization and Secondary Education*. Fred Engelhardt, William H. Zeigel, Jr., William M. Proctor, and Scovel S. Mayo. \$0.15.
9. *Legal and Regulatory Provisions Affecting Secondary Education*. Ward W. Keesecker and Franklin C. Sewell. \$0.10.
10. *Articulation of High School and College*. P. Roy Brammell. \$0.10.
11. *Administration and Supervision*. Fred Engelhardt, William H. Zeigel, Jr., and Roy O. Billett. \$0.15.
12. *Selection and Appointment of Teachers*. W. S. Deffenbaugh and William H. Zeigel, Jr. \$0.10.
13. *Provisions for Individual Differences, Marking, and Promotion*. Roy O. Billett. \$0.40.
14. *Programs of Guidance*. William C. Reavis. \$0.10.
15. *Research in Secondary Schools*. William H. Zeigel, Jr. \$0.10.
16. *Interpreting the Secondary School to the Public*. Belmont Farley. \$0.10.
17. *The Secondary-School Library*. B. Lamar Johnson. \$0.10.
18. *Procedures in Curriculum Making*. Edwin S. Lide. \$0.10.
19. *The Program of Studies*. A. K. Loomis, Edwin S. Lide, and B. Lamar Johnson. \$0.15.
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AN EXPERIMENT IN APPRECIATION OF MOTION-PICTURE PLAYS

An issue of the *New York Sun* carries the following announcement of an experiment in children's appreciation of motion-picture plays which is being conducted by teachers of English. It is reassuring to have a group like the National Council of Teachers of English undertake a study of the kind described, although as educators we may be embarrassed to explain why an activity that engrosses such a large part of the time and attention of old and young should have been so long ignored as a field of investigation and as an important element

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in the curriculum. We may hope that the study will yield significant findings and that the results will be given wide publicity.

Thousands of students in English classes throughout the country are taking part in a "photoplay-appreciation" experiment being conducted under the auspices of the National Council of Teachers of English. The children taking part in the experiment are viewing a series of selected motion pictures on which they are being asked to express their opinion.

The experiment began last October, when members of the experimental committee of the council selected two equivalent classes in each of their schools to take part in the test. The classes selected were of the same grade of English, taught, as far as possible, by the same teacher, and of similar average age and similar I.Q. range. One group was designated the control group, the other the experimental group.

When the experiment began, both groups were given an initial test in photoplay appreciation, and the scores made on the test were recorded by the teachers. Following this test, the control group was asked to see the motion picture without discussion or instruction of any kind. In the experimental classes, however, activities were begun by the teachers with a view to stimulating growth in critical appreciation. A suggestive rating scale for judging pictures was supplied to the experimental groups, as well as study guides and outlines of selected current motion-picture productions.

The teachers were asked to keep a diary of the activities of the experimental group, in addition to recording the dates on which each of the pictures was seen.

In December both groups were asked to indicate their preferences among the pictures seen to date on special mimeographed ballots. Students were asked to list the pictures in the order of their merit. The teachers also cast their votes for the pictures seen, and a record was kept of the results of the balloting.

About March 15 both groups of classes will be asked again to vote on the pictures, and the results of the ballots will be recorded. At the same time, both groups will be given a final test in photoplay appreciation. Results of the experiment will be announced as soon as the records can be studied.

VIRGINIA AT WORK ON THE HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM

The Virginia Committee for Research in Secondary Education has turned its attention to the high-school curriculum. The general topic of the sixth annual meeting of the committee, held August 15 and 16, 1932, was "The Virginia High School Curriculum." The proceedings of the meeting, including the papers presented, have been recently published as the sixteenth issue of *Secondary Education in Virginia* under the title of the topic as just quoted. The more general papers are on such subjects as "The Nature and Pur-

pose of the High School Curriculum," "The Evolution of the Present High School Curriculum," "Modern Practices and Trends in the Secondary School Curriculum," "Survey of Present Practice in Curriculum Building," and "The Rôle of Content in Curriculum-making." Five of the papers deal with the adjustment of content in four major subject fields, namely, English, the social studies, the natural sciences, and mathematics. From a reading of these papers one gains the impression that a substantial program of curriculum revision is on foot in the state.

A TRAVEL-CAMP FOR GIRLS

The summer camp is a long-established recreative-educational agency enrolling hundreds of thousands of children, youths, and adults annually. The travel-camp, notwithstanding its great possibilities in these days of excellent roads and dependable motor vehicles, has not yet experienced so vigorous a development. One college in the Middle West has conducted such a travel-camp for its students for several summers. The plan has also been successfully used with boys of high-school age. It remained for Mr. and Mrs. John G. Olmstead of Oberlin, Ohio, to extend the plan to girls of thirteen to sixteen years of age. The project was begun last year and will be repeated and developed this year. A great variety of points of interest and importance are included in the itinerary, among them places of historic significance, scenic regions, industrial plants, and well-known colleges and universities. With all its values, the usual stationary summer camp has nothing to compare with these educative contacts. At the same time, it is possible in the travel-camp to include a desirable program of physical recreation (including swimming) and of socially constructive activities under auspices on a par with those to be found in approved summer camps.

MORE PROGRAMS OF THE COMMITTEE ON CIVIC EDUCATION BY RADIO

The series of impartial, non-partisan broadcasts on "You and Your Government" presented by the Committee on Civic Education by Radio of the National Advisory Council on Radio in Education and the American Political Science Association, referred to in an earlier issue of the *School Review*, is being continued throughout the

school year. The broadcasts are made every Tuesday evening from 7:15 to 7:45 P.M., eastern standard time (beginning May 2, eastern daylight-saving time), over a nation-wide network of almost forty stations. The subjects of the broadcasts beginning with April 4 and continuing through June 13 are: "Allocation of Sources of Revenue between State and Federal Governments," "Interallied Debts," "Parties and Pressure Groups," "Unemployment Insurance," "The World Court," "Aids to Legislation," "Banking," "Legislative Investigations," "Unemployment," "The Governor and the Legislature," and "The Legislative Product of 1933." These are timely subjects, and the staff announced to participate is fully as distinguished as that taking part in the earlier series.

Just as in the earlier series, copies of the program are supplied free on request to the National Advisory Council on Radio in Education at 60 East Forty-second Street, New York City, and the committee has prepared a listener's handbook, copies of which are distributed free of charge by the University of Chicago Press, 5750 Ellis Avenue, Chicago. The handbook contains suggestions to teachers on how the series may be used in connection with courses in problems of democracy, current events, and American government.

The programs will be continued through the school year 1933-34, and the committee welcomes suggestions of improvement in its methods and of discussion topics for the next series. Communications should be addressed to the Committee on Civic Education by Radio, in care of the National Advisory Council on Radio in Education at its New York address.

RETRENCHMENT IN SCHOOL EXPENDITURES

The following statement, which was written by Vierling Kersey, superintendent of public instruction in California, and which appears in *California Schools*, is one of the best of many statements on the subject of retrenchment in school expenditures coming out of state departments of education. It emphasizes the need of a larger proportionate contribution by the state to local school outlays (following revision of the tax structure) and opposition to further cuts in the salaries of teachers.

The reduced buying power and tax-paying ability of a large majority of the American public has brought with it an urgent demand for retrenchment in

governmental expenditures and particularly in expenditures for education. It must not be supposed that the total resources of the nation are insufficient to support education and other governmental activities on an adequate basis. When total national wealth and total national income are considered even during this economic crisis, it is plainly evident that a more equitable distribution of wealth would make possible a much higher standard of living for all of the people than the country has realized even during the most prosperous years. In this respect California is in a much more fortunate position than all but a few of the states. In spite of these irrefutable facts, however, it is true that under the present economic order and under the existing tax system, the vast majority of those who pay for the support of government have suffered a tremendous reduction of their buying power and are no longer able to continue to pay the same amounts for governmental support.

It must be vigorously maintained that the only solution for most of our present problems of governmental support lies in a sweeping revision of the present tax structure so that the total tax burden will be distributed among the people in accordance with their ability to pay. Retrenchment in expenditure for governmental activities, resulting in curtailment of essential social, humanitarian, and educational services can be considered only as a temporary expedient. We are forced to this expedient, however, until some constructive action is taken in the direction of instituting a more equitable system for the support of government.

The question arises: In what manner shall retrenchments in school expenditures be made? Under the present system of school support in California, the state contributes approximately 17 per cent of school revenues from funds derived largely from state gross-receipts taxes on operative property. The remaining 83 per cent of the receipts for schools are derived from county and school-district taxes levied on common property. The share of school costs met from state sources is far too low at the present time and, if reduced, would result in serious damage to the school system of the state. Likewise no reductions can be made in the present minimum support guaranteed from the counties without disastrous consequences to schools in all parts of the state. Whatever part of the burden of school support must be met from taxes on common property should be distributed equally over as large an area as possible. Differences in financial ability among school districts in the same county are so great that a shifting of county support, or any material portion of county support, to the school districts would leave hundreds of districts without adequate funds to keep schools open, even if the highest possible tax rates were imposed upon the property of the district.

The present state and county school support assures only the barest minimum of educational programs for elementary schools and falls far short of assuring even a minimum program for high schools.

During the school year 1931-32, 52.3 per cent of elementary-school receipts were derived from district taxes, while 67.7 per cent of high-school receipts came

from the same source. Any retrenchment in school expenditures must be effected by decreasing the amounts now derived by taxation of real and personal property by local school districts. Any other method would prove disastrous and furthermore would be ineffective in bringing relief to the taxpayers who are at present most overburdened. It is obvious that, if tax reductions are to be effective, they should be made where the tax burdens are the greatest, namely, in the school districts. Any reduction of state school support would either impose additional burdens of local taxation or would prevent local tax reduction; any reduction in county school support would either add to the present burden of district taxes or would prevent reduction of district taxes.

The seriousness of the economic situation has already been fully recognized by school officials. School budgets for the current year have been cut to the extent of approximately \$23,000,000 in the state as a whole in order to reduce the burden borne by the common property taxpayer. A reduction of over \$10,000,000 was effected in school budgets during the preceding year. These reductions have affected nearly every phase of the educational program of the state and include material reductions in salaries paid to teachers. In many cases reductions have been so drastic as to entail serious disadvantages to the children in our schools.

Teachers' salaries generally constitute from 70 to 75 per cent of total school expenditures. It is obvious that a further retrenchment in school expenditures will involve a reduction in the total amount of money spent for teachers' salaries.

In considering further reductions of teachers' salaries, it is well to remember that teachers' salaries have always been quite low in terms of the service which they rendered, in terms of the high training requirements and high selective factors operating in the employment of teachers, and in terms of salaries paid to workers in other fields requiring a comparable amount of training. It is only during the last few years as the purchasing power of the dollar has increased that teachers have been remunerated for their services in a manner commensurate with their training, type of service rendered, and salaries paid in other professions. It must be emphasized that during prosperous times when the purchasing power of the dollar was low, teachers' salaries did not keep pace with the increased cost of living. During such periods teachers have always been in an unfavorable position as regards salaries. We know full well that, when the wave of depression has passed and the cost of living rises, increases in teachers' salaries will lag far behind wages and salaries in other lines of endeavor. When retrenchments in local school expenditures must result in the lowering of salaries, these facts should be kept in mind.

In general, there are three ways in which the amounts spent for teachers' salaries may be reduced: (1) Schools may absorb increases in enrolment without employing additional teachers. (2) Class sizes may be increased. (3) Individual salaries may be reduced. Possibilities in many districts in connection with the first two of these alternatives have been exhausted. The reductions in

school budgets effected during the past few years have taken advantage of these methods. In general, teachers' salaries throughout the state have already been considerably reduced. Where further reductions are inevitable, every effort should be bent to avoid injustice.

A program of indiscriminate salary reductions must certainly be avoided. Many districts should find it unnecessary further to reduce salaries. Those districts maintaining school solely on state and county support have always paid the lowest salaries for teachers. During the prosperous times of a few years ago, teachers in such districts were grossly underpaid. There should be no further salary reductions in these districts.

There are many districts throughout the state with sufficient wealth to support a satisfactory educational program without the imposition of high district tax rates. In such districts there is no reason for making further reductions in teachers' salaries.

In districts where salaries must be reduced in order to maintain school, such reduction should be considered as but a temporary expedient. Every effort should be made to again make salaries commensurate with the service rendered as soon as economic conditions will permit.

The great majority of teachers in this state are fully aware of their responsibilities as public servants. When economic conditions make necessary reductions in salaries, such reductions have been and will be accepted as for the common good. Those engaged in the profession of education are dedicated to the responsibility of guiding the destinies of the citizens of tomorrow. The adversities of the present will not blind the teachers to their responsibilities.

Although retrenchments in school expenditures and reductions in teachers' salaries seem necessary in the face of existing conditions, these measures should be considered only as temporary. Curtailing of essential services should be unnecessary. In a nation and in a state so wealthy as ours, collective enterprise in social, humanitarian, and educational activities can be adequately supported if the fundamental problem of the distribution of tax burden on the ability-to-pay basis is recognized. Even though retrenchments are forced upon us at present, let intelligent direction and vigorous effort guide us to a speedy solution based upon correct principles of the whole problem of support of governmental activity on an equitable and just basis.

A CONFERENCE ON BUSINESS EDUCATION

The School of Business of the University of Chicago is announcing a conference on business education to be held Thursday and Friday, June 29 and 30, 1933. The general theme of the conference will be "The Reconstruction of Business Education in Secondary Schools." Leaders in business education and in general education, both from the vicinity and from other sections of the country, will participate in the conference.

The Department of Business Education of the National Education Association and the National Association of Commercial Teacher Training Institutions will hold meetings in Chicago at the time of this conference. Informal luncheons and a joint dinner with these organizations have been planned. Recognizing that many business teachers will wish to remain in Chicago for a considerable length of time during the summer of 1933, the School of Business of the University of Chicago has arranged a program which will make it possible for teachers to attend the summer session and devote time to the Century of Progress Exposition. A full offering of courses will be available in such fields as marketing, accounting, personnel, and finance, as well as in business teaching. A complete program of the conference will be mailed by the School of Business of the University of Chicago to those requesting it.

IN DEFENSE OF AMERICAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS¹

CHARLES H. JUDD
University of Chicago

Some months ago I went into a third-grade classroom and found the teacher and pupils engaged in a drama which was staged for the purpose of teaching children how to cross a street. In my boyhood crossing a street was not an adventure. I can imagine the unbridled mirth which would have been released in 1880 if someone had suggested in a meeting of a citizens' committee on taxation that children in a third grade, or any other grade, be taught in school how to cross a street. It is true that the casualty-insurance companies of this country, controlled and directed by hard-headed leaders of the modern industrial system, are willing to spend a very respectable sum of money each year to carry on vigorous propaganda for the introduction of safety education into schools. These leaders, when they are thinking about humanity—and the profits which come to casualty-insurance companies as a result of the lengthening of human life—are filled with pride at the statistics which show the decline in accidents in those cities where safety education has flourished. Of course, when these same leaders sit on citizens' committees on taxation, they abhor all "fads and frills," and, forgetting for the moment that it was they themselves who pushed safety education into the curriculum, join in an angry chorus of protests against the teaching of anything except the three R's, which they solemnly declare to be the only really legitimate contents of instruction in the good old American citizenship school.

I am not here to advocate either the introduction of safety education into the curriculum or its withdrawal from the schools. I am merely trying to find words of one syllable which may possibly appeal to the hysterical bankers and business men who are engaged in

¹ Address delivered on February 27, 1933, before a joint meeting of the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association and the National Association of High School Inspectors and Supervisors.

these troubled times in closing the schools while they do something which they call "saving the credit" of cities, and states, and the nation. The schools did not breed the children; nor did they make the streets of our cities unsafe for pedestrians.

As a student of psychology, I am interested in arriving at a formulation of the facts about crossing the street which can be employed as a generalization applicable to all education. In earlier times crossing a street was comparatively safe for a normal individual because all the factors were fully recognized and clearly understood without any training except that which came from ordinary experience. A child can see a horse approaching and can readily understand the rate of movement at which the horse is coming because a horse is in the same general class with respect to speed as human beings themselves. Not only so, but the approach of horses coming from two different directions makes no over-exacting demands on a child's attention because the whole panorama unfolds at an easily perceived rate. The modern mechanical age has banished horses. It almost seems at times as though human beings were in process of being banished. Powerful mechanical contrivances come careering down the street at a rate which is incomparably more swift than the movements of any human being. The commonplace perception of earlier years must be elaborated into a more highly organized kind of knowledge. Ordinary experience will no longer suffice; children must be explicitly taught how to cross a street.

Let us think of some other examples which will fit our generalization equally well. When the American army engineers arrived in Havana during the Spanish American War, they found the sanitary conditions primitive and inviting of all kinds of contagion. The city was hardly more advanced than a rural settlement. The explanation of the situation was to be found in the familiar fact that human beings tend to follow habitual modes of behavior and practices of life long after there have been radical changes in the conditions under which the habits were formed. Urban life with its congestion produces wholly artificial conditions of human existence. Though the change from rural to urban life is very radical, it may be entirely overlooked by individual citizens who are busy with their petty affairs. Such was the case in Havana. The city needed to be cleaned

up. The lives of its people were endangered by neglect. What did the American army engineers contribute to the situation? The answer is that they brought to Havana modern science. In so doing, they not only changed the physical conditions; they changed the mental attitudes of human beings. Sanitation is both a mode of life and a mode of thought and volition.

Another example of our generalization is to be seen in the difficulty which American society faces in revising governmental organizations. The year 1933 sees American communities governed by constitutions and laws belonging to an agrarian period which was long ago superseded by modern industrialism. The number of separate taxing and expending jurisdictions which infest the land can be understood only by going back in one's thinking to the era when people lived in small communities, when all the leading citizens were personally acquainted with one another and with the various degrees of one another's integrity or otherwise. In those days government was not in business. Indeed, government was of minor importance. Today all is different. Economic relations are so intricate and so much in need of regulation that vast governmental services have been organized which our forefathers never knew or imagined to be possible.

The president of the Department of Secondary-School Principals suggested that I speak in defense of the secondary schools. As I set myself to the task of preparing for this occasion, I came to the conclusion that it was far more in keeping with the demands of the times that I prepare a defense of modern society. The ultimate safety of the social order depends on the training of citizens to a level where they will be able to cope with the complex problems of a highly elaborated civilization. Common sense is a very good basis for successful life, but it is primitive as contrasted with trained intelligence. If the time ever comes when society closes its higher schools, the demands on intelligence will have to be reduced.

Anyone who reviews the history of civilization notes that there was a time when there were no schools. That was in the day when man lived very near to nature, when he gathered his food with his own hands, when he found shelter in the natural protections of rocks and woods, when he depended on favorable climatic conditions to

make possible his comparatively helpless existence. When natural living gave way to early industrial organization, even though that organization was of a simple type, the need for instruction in the arts began to be recognized. Schools became a part of society's machinery of self-preservation.

It is interesting to observe that the earliest schools of Europe were institutions of higher education. Universities antedated secondary schools, and secondary schools antedated schools for the common people. The interpretation of this priority of higher and secondary education is that society found it both extremely desirable and very difficult to pass on its highest forms of knowledge. A school is a social agency for the transmission of the intellectual inheritance of the race.

The common school was not thought to be necessary in the days of the medieval university and of the early secondary schools because the humbler members of society were surrounded by simple conditions of life. They were serfs. They never moved away from the narrow confines in which they were born and reared. They were told what to believe about their souls, about their rulers, and about their future lives. They were encouraged to do as little thinking for themselves as possible.

Education in the medieval world was the privilege of the few. Only the few were allowed to come in contact with the experiences that transcended the humdrum of common life.

Civilization moved on, and it became evident that the common people must be admitted into some of the broader spheres of experience. The common school came into being, but at first this common school was hemmed in by restrictions dictated by a hereditary aristocracy. The common school taught reading and number, because the conditions of life had grown complicated to the point where reading and number were indispensable to community existence.

Somewhat later the common people were allowed to study geography and history. Geography and history are dangerous subjects when made available to the common people. The insights gained by the study of these subjects are likely to change complacent serfs into enthusiasts for democracy.

Finally, when society took the next step and created a civilization

in which everyone has a right to share in the secrets of science, there was no turning back. Can anyone doubt that present-day civilization has become so complex that some knowledge above the mere rudiments is the right of every individual?

In 1930 I made a study of what industry requires of persons who apply for the privilege of employment. I took account of the demands made by fifty-one large industrial and commercial concerns on applicants for employment. These 51 concerns employed workers in 190 different kinds of positions, ranging from positions filled by experts, such as engineers, to lowly positions, such as those of messengers. For admission to 65 of the 190 types of positions, industry demanded graduation from high school or, in some cases, even more—graduation from college or professional school. Thirty-four more of the 190 kinds of positions required a minimum of two years of high-school education. In other words, more than one-half of the types of positions demanded education beyond the elementary grades.

I have not spoken, up to this point, of any of the personal ambitions which drive men and women to desire insight into the facts revealed by science and the ideas recorded in literature. I have not spoken of the hopes which parents entertain that they may be able to provide for their children experiences broader than those which surrounded their own early lives. I have held to strictly objective facts. I have said of education that it grows in scope with the growth of industry and with the increasing complexity of life.

It would be an interesting calculation to try to make a strictly mathematical estimate of the amount of education needed to equip one for life in a given era. Think, if you will, of life in the time of Martin Luther. Remember that he and his associates pleaded with the burgomasters of German towns to open schools for the common people. He had translated the Bible into the vernacular and was the leader in the movement to liberate the religious thought of the people by training them to read. All this happened more than three hundred years before there was any thought of those devices which have brought all parts of the world into telegraphic communication with one another and made it possible for the common man to know the doings of remote nations as soon as they happen. If mere

learning to read can be thought of as requiring, say, three years of schooling, is it not evident that the complexities of modern life create a demand for four times as much schooling as was thought necessary at the time of the Reformation, four hundred years ago?

There is one characteristic of modern American society which makes the cultivation of higher forms of intelligence absolutely essential to individual success and to the continuation of the social system. That characteristic is the rapid pace at which changes take place in industrial processes. For long generations the methods of production in agriculture and manufacturing were fairly stable. In the older civilizations sons followed the callings of their fathers and employed the methods which had long been known to the older generations. With an acceleration which baffles the imagination, new materials have come into use in industry, and new processes of dealing with these materials have been invented. It is utterly futile to attempt to anticipate today the forms of behavior which will be essential to personal success in the years of the future. Modern education must cultivate adaptability. What is taught must be in a form which suggests intelligent readjustment.

Psychology has made it clear that habitual repetition of an act demands little use of the mind. Even acts of skill may become so fixed by mere repetition that they do not call for the supervision of consciousness. The moment a habit has to be readjusted in order to fit behavior to a new situation, intelligence comes into play.

The implications for education of the psychological distinction between habits and intelligent adaptation are so apparent that no extended discussion of them is necessary. The minds of pupils must be exposed to a sufficient range of experiences to insure the cultivation of mental agility and adaptability. I have no doubt that proper organization of education, even in the lower grades, can contribute much to the development of a type of intelligence which will avoid the limitations resulting from mere routine drill, but it seems clear in the light of long experience with pupils that the range of intellectual contacts which is essential to the production of adaptability of a high type can be provided only through education of secondary grade.

Now and again one hears the question seriously raised: Can so-

ciety support free secondary education? I find the answer to this question in such considerations as I have attempted to present. Little children have to learn to read and write; through the study of geography and history and literature, they have to find out something about the world in which they live before they can begin to acquire ideas regarding public sanitation and the proper organization of government. It takes long years to develop those mature attitudes toward the world which prepare one to readjust successfully one's ways of life to the demands of a complex and changing social order. I firmly believe that general secondary education is a necessary corollary to the development of a progressing civilization.

I have made no effort, up to this point, to meet the objections which are sometimes voiced against the particular forms of secondary education exhibited in American school systems. I certainly shall spend no time in attempting to answer the charge that our secondary schools are to be censured because they are not like the secondary schools of the Old World. I have noted, as you have, the unfavorable comments of recent writers and speakers who have been harsh in their judgments about high schools. I sometimes wish it were not beneath the dignity of such an occasion as this to express in appropriate profanity my contempt for anyone who, seeking cheap notoriety, indulges in billingsgate about American secondary schools.

It is just because civilization has never before reached the level of requiring a general secondary education that there are no precedents for our schools to follow. It is just because civilization is itself a vast experimental undertaking that its progress is beset in schools, as in all other phases of life, by hazards. It is not a confession of criminal neglect to admit frankly that American secondary schools have made some mistakes. In the haste to meet new demands, in the striving to keep pace with the progress of modern times, the schools of this country have been obliged again and again to try devices which require time for their refinement. Many years ago we adopted a unit school organization. We fitted our secondary schools to our elementary schools and made a system in which continuous progress was made possible. Europe is today experimenting with a unit school organization. The democratic tendencies which have taken

possession of even the oldest civilizations are driving many nations to imitate the model which we have in some measure perfected. If our unit system had imperfections and has today imperfections, which we are trying to correct by organizing junior high schools and junior colleges, why should anyone say of us that we have grossly failed?

We have enlarged and extended the curriculum of the secondary school. In some school systems we have tried the experiment of putting an elaborate secondary-school program in comprehensive or cosmopolitan schools. In other school systems we have tried the experiment of building separate technical high schools, commercial high schools, and academic high schools. We have conducted school surveys and spoken frankly of the defects and virtues of our various forms of organization. We now note with interest and some satisfaction that in England and Germany school authorities are struggling with exactly the problems which we tried to solve when we offered differentiated programs of instruction for pupils of different abilities and different outlooks. Is it a crime to have experimented with commercial courses and technical courses and reorganized general courses? Is the balance of successes so small in the estimation of our critics that they will allow us no pride in our pioneer achievements?

I could go on asking questions such as the foregoing, which I think our critics have not even thought of intelligently, but I must leave them to their folly. I have one more enemy which I wish to attack in defense of American secondary education with all the strength that I can command.

There are in the United States public officials who prostitute the schools for personal gain. From time to time we have all of us witnessed the ugly spectacle of a school board, such as that of the J. Sterling Morton High School of Cicero, Illinois, which works its evil will on an institution that has been meeting the demands of civilization steadily, energetically, and faithfully for many years. In our political system there seems to be no remedy for the misuse of public office which is exhibited in such cases. In this particular instance the State Department of Public Instruction of Illinois has stood supinely by and allowed the program of maladministration to go on its way. The state department even officially recognized the school. I am

far less concerned about the mistakes which have been made in our construction of the secondary-school curriculum, about our blunders in organization, about our shortcomings in teaching than I am about a social system which is impotent in the face of direct affront to American civilization. If our profession cannot find some way to eliminate political corruption from the management of secondary schools, then are we indeed guilty of criminal inefficiency.

The defense of American secondary schools will in the long term of years be supplied by American civilization itself. A social order such as that in which we live cannot exist without general popular education of an advanced type. The only reason why it is urgent that this defense be undertaken now is that generations of young people pass with the passing years. Each delay in the evolution of our secondary schools entails a loss which cannot be repaired. Ultimate vindication of American secondary education is as sure as the continuance of our national life. Immediate defense of the secondary schools of the United States against serious retardation depends on the efforts of all of us to improve the schools in their internal operations and to make clear to the people of this country the relation of secondary schools to modern civilized life.

TRENDS OF THOUGHT IN ART EDUCATION

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PURPOSE, SOURCES, AND PROCEDURE

The purpose of this article is to present a survey of the trends of thought in art education during the past forty years. Since the leaders in the field are the principal contributors to the programs of major art associations, this study will use the papers published in the annual bulletins of the associations as an index to the theory in art education at various intervals. A survey of these theories over several years reveals significant changes in the emphasis given a number of items, which illuminate current tendencies. Such an analysis, therefore, will give specific guidance in shaping future programs in art education.

The data for this investigation were taken from the annual proceedings of the Western Arts Association for the years 1894-1930, of the Eastern Arts Association for the years 1906-30, and of the Pacific Arts Association for the years 1926-30. The proceedings of the Western Arts Association for 1899, 1901, and 1918 were not available for the study. Sixty-two bulletins of the three art associations were examined carefully to determine every opinion expressed and every topic discussed. Since the study was designed to consider only references to art as a factor in the general educational program, unrelated discussions of the technical arts were excluded. Among the arts so eliminated were home economics, the manual arts, and the printing arts. Through the use of this criterion six hundred papers and addresses were selected for analysis. More than three thousand ideas and opinions were entered on cards. The cards were classified into groups in such a way as to give a critical analysis of the objectives and the subject matter advocated during the period covered by the investigation.

In order that a mechanical procedure and rote summary of the findings might be prevented, the determination of trends in art edu-

cation was based on five criteria: (1) all opinions relating to art education expressed in the last forty years, (2) the status and the influence of the individual who proposed the idea, (3) the influence of related subjects introduced into the curriculum, (4) the demand made by educators in recent years for a statement of aims and definitions of subject matter, and (5) the comparative frequency of opinions during the period studied.

OBJECTIVES OF ART EDUCATION

Absence of objectives in earliest stages.—There was no stated objective for instruction in art when it was introduced experimentally into Boston schools in 1821. The experiment involved chiefly outline drawing and copying, and, with no generally accepted purpose or objective, it met with limited success. A few years later instruction in art spread to a number of American cities, but the sudden rise of interest in the subject was not due to objectives and methods acceptable to educators. Instead, the interest was a pure matter of business. Visitors to European exhibitions saw the superiority of foreign-designed articles over American designs. American industry needed designers. The logical way to discover talent, according to early art educators, was to teach art to all pupils in the public schools.

The first period of experimental art education was climaxed by an exhibition of public-school work at the Chicago World's Fair in 1893. At this exhibition the industrial objective was supplemented by a "fine-arts" objective. Since 1893 art education has been adapted to the needs of other groups and purposes. Its objectives are vastly different today from those advanced during the nineteenth century.

Development of taste and discrimination.—Figure 1 shows clearly the tendency in recent years to emphasize the development of good taste. This objective was not recognized before 1900. Art educators today think that the course in art should develop a discriminating judgment in choosing objects for personal use and in changing one's environment to produce beauty.

Through the influence of Snedden, Prosser, and Bonser, art education felt the importance of practical life-values. Walter Sargent

aptly summarizes the general feeling in applying aesthetics to daily situations: "While we must offer every opportunity for original expression, we need to teach the majority of people to choose well from the bewildering abundance which modern department stores offer, and to solve the concrete aesthetic problems of ordinary environment."¹

Development of appreciation of beauty.—The appreciation of beauty refers to emotional or aesthetic responses to creations in nature or in art materials. This reaction in the presence of beauty

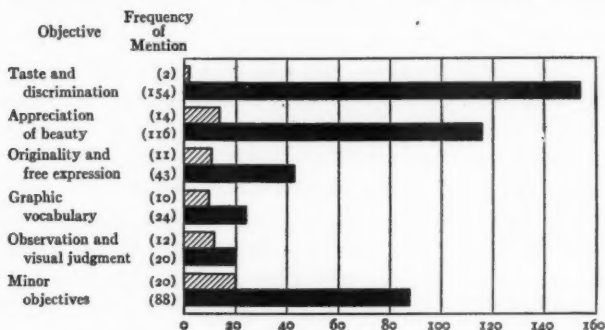


FIG. 1.—Frequency of mention of five objectives of art education in the annual bulletins of three major art associations during two decades, 1891-1900 and 1921-30. (The solid bar represents the later decade.)

seems to be the satisfaction or delight which individuals derive from objects of art. Appreciation is shown by Figure 1 to have been a major aim of art education during the past decade. Early art educators soon came to realize that their subject should develop appreciation and not professional designers. The similarity between an early comment and the recent conception of the importance of appreciation can be seen in the following quotations. The last statement, made by Kirby, state director of art education in Pennsylvania, represents a significant trend in art education today.

Art education has for its purpose the development of the power to appreciate and enjoy works of art, rather than the power to produce art.²

¹ Walter Sargent, "Fine and Industrial Art in Public Education," *Seventeenth Annual Report of the Western Drawing and Manual Training Association* (1910), p. 62.

² O. I. Woodley, "Art Education as a Moral Influence," *Seventh Annual Report of the Western Drawing Teachers' Association* (1900), p. 83.

Never before has there been such a unanimity of purpose among teachers and supervisors of art as there is today, and there never was a time when the purpose was so commanding of respect and support. A major aim in the interests of appreciation meets a 100 per cent need and as a consequence has a new significance to the community at large.¹

Development of originality and free, creative expression.—Originality, imagination, and free, creative expression are aspects of the same fundamental activity and are treated together in the literature of the bulletins. A great amount of interest has been exhibited in these related activities during the period of this study. Although little mention was made of free expression as such before 1900, it has now become one of the five major objectives of art education.

Free expression was greatly influenced by the progressive-education and the child-centered-school movements. The work of Mearns, Rugg, Shumaker, and Cizek materially affected the whole art program. Numerous references to free expression in the literature of the Pacific Arts Association suggest that the child be allowed to express himself freely—anything, in any way, if he only *expresses*. In sharp contrast to earlier theories, technique was not considered. Imitation of pictures and of nature was tabooed. The test of the drawing was its originality and the creative spirit displayed. Similarly, modern art educators place much value on free expression, but they are endeavoring to throw light on the best way to handle the process or activity. At present they think that freedom in art materials is not a simple removal of restraint. Freedom is not aimless and uncontrolled actions, nor is it vague and uncertain gropings. Instead, it should mean intelligent self-direction. It should mean a clear understanding of one's purpose and of ways of achieving that purpose.

Development of a graphic vocabulary.—Since the earliest beginnings of art education, teachers have recognized the value of drawing as a means for the clarification or expression of ideas, for the representation of objects, and for recording events. However, a significant change in the objective for a drawing vocabulary may be noted. Before 1900 the exact rendering of objects and geometric solids was stressed as an end in itself, while at present a fair accuracy in free-

¹ C. Valentine Kirby, "More Significant Aims in Art Appreciation," *Proceedings of the Fifteenth Annual Meeting of the Eastern Arts Association* (1924), p. 80.

hand drawing or sketching is used extensively as a means of objectifying ideas in the thinking process and as a study tool.

Development of observation and visual judgment.—In the earlier periods of this study visual training was not only a major objective, but it was one of the few objectives which were directly planned for. Teachers were right when they stated definitely that object-drawing would quicken the perception of forms. Despite a present-day reaction against object-drawing, art educators support the early theory that drawing aids in visual analysis. The art educator today, however, considers visual analysis or judgment as a skill to be applied to worth-while practical activities. He suggests that it be used as a means for the perception of beauty and as an aid in selecting objects in the first order of taste. As in the case of the development of a graphic vocabulary, the training of the powers of observation and visual judgment has been a major objective of the teaching of art for many years and recently has been given practical life-values.

Judd gives the following educational basis for training in observation:

You ought to say, "We cultivate an attitude toward the world that is an attitude of careful analytical observation. . . . If you have tried to produce, even if you have done it very clumsily, you look out on the world ever after with a type of appreciation that never comes to the individual who has never tried."¹

Farnum summarizes the present-day trend in this respect from the point of view of the art educator:

A child may never use his drawing to any great extent, but drawing is conceded to be of the utmost value in training one to observe. No seeing man may escape the use of his eyes. When a child consciously and with purposeful effort tries to record his mental picture, whether it be created from past experiences or memorized from a nearby object, he is practicing one of the most valuable educative processes in the whole school curriculum.²

Minor objectives.—Although the following objectives of art education are given secondary consideration today, there has been an increase in the emphasis given them: (1) Relate art to industry.

¹ Charles H. Judd, "What Mental Processes Are Cultivated through the Mechanical Arts," *Twenty-second Annual Report of the Western Drawing and Manual Training Association* (1915), pp. 39-40.

² Royal Bailey Farnum, "Art Education in Its Relation to the Junior High School," *Proceedings of the Thirteenth Annual Meeting of the Eastern Arts Association* (1922), p. 150.

(2) Discover and guide talent. (3) Give cultural values. (4) Furnish a valuable use of leisure. (5) Furnish a means for the interpretation of life. On the other hand, the following minor objectives have declined in importance: (1) development of technique, (2) development of motor skills and co-ordinations, and (3) development of the mental faculties.

SUBJECT MATTER AND ART EXPERIENCES

The types of subject matter.—An examination of Figure 2 will show that, on the basis of frequency of mention, the former practice of

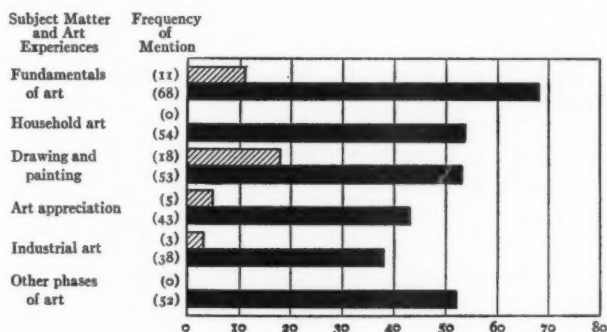


FIG. 2.—Frequency of mention of five types of subject matter and art experiences proposed in the annual bulletins of three major art associations during two decades, 1891-1900 and 1921-30. (The solid bar represents the later decade.)

making drawing the principal art activity has been supplanted by the recent proposals of five types of subject matter in art: (1) fundamentals of art, (2) household art, (3) drawing and painting, (4) art appreciation, and (5) industrial art. The minor proposals reported in Figure 2 have been introduced in recent years to enrich the work at the junior and senior high school levels.

Fundamentals of art.—The fundamentals of art refer to the basic elements and principles which remain constant and are applicable to all the arts. Before 1900 color-study was the single item among the fundamentals which was proposed for subject matter in art. Although it was thought desirable generally to teach basic conceptions, the proposals or agreement to teach fundamentals of art,

which appears in the literature since 1900, did not solve the situation. Art educators, as well as artists, did not agree on what constituted basic elements and principles. Batchelder,¹ Ross,² Dow,³ and Sargent⁴ had worked out theories of composition and programs of art based on their own definitions. It soon became apparent that these and a large number of other theories overlapped in many particulars and that there was a possibility of harmonizing them into a category acceptable to all leaders in art. This result was accomplished in 1929 by the Committee on Terminology of the Federated

TABLE I
SIMPLEST FORM OF CLASSIFICATION*

Basic Elements	Major Principles	Minor Principles	Resulting Attributes	Supreme Attainment
Line Form	Repetition	Alternation	Harmony	Beauty
Light and Dark } Tone	Rhythm	Sequence		
	Proportion	Radiation		
		Parallelism		
	Balance	Transition	Fitness	
Color Texture	Symmetry			
	Emphasis	Contrast		

*William G. Whitford (Chairman), *Report of the Committee on Terminology*, p. 26. Baltimore: Federated Council on Art Education (Office of the Secretary, Carrollton and Lafayette Avenues), 1929.

Council on Art Education after an extensive three-year research. The summary from the report presented in Table I shows the simplest and the most exact vocabulary of art terms. This vocabulary has been accepted generally by leaders in art education in America today. In defining and interpreting this art vocabulary, the committee has made a significant contribution to art education. As a

¹ Ernest A. Batchelder, *Design in Theory and Practice*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1910. Pp. xx+272.

² Denman W. Ross, *A Theory of Pure Design: Harmony, Balance, Rhythm*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1907. Pp. viii+202.

³ Arthur Wesley Dow, *Composition: A Series of Exercises in Art Structure for the Use of Students and Teachers*. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co., 1899. Pp. 128.

⁴ Walter Sargent, *Fine and Industrial Arts in Elementary Schools*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1912. Pp. vi+132.

consequence, this vocabulary constitutes today one of the major learning products in the subject.

Before the work of the Committee on Terminology was done, there existed a number of different kinds of art programs or approaches for the teaching of fundamentals. The programs of Batchelder, Ross, Dow, and Sargent have been referred to in the preceding paragraph.

Using three major sources—the suggestions of Sargent, the established fundamentals of art, and the recommendations of the general educator—Whitford has organized a fivefold approach to art education which stresses the basic elements, fundamental principles, and practical applications of art.

Drawing and painting . . .	the graphic experience
Design	the ornamental experience
Color	the chromatic experience
Construction	the motor-constructive experience
Appreciation	the visual-mental-enjoymental experience ¹

The general acceptance of this approach to a balanced program in art, which in reality is a division of subject matter, is a significant trend in art education today.

Household art.—Household art in this study concerns the interiors and the exteriors of houses, furniture, landscaping, gardens, and personal costumes. In contrast to the theories of fifty years ago, modern art educators see in the household arts one of the richest fields which public-school art may develop. The general movement to replace fine arts with practical arts may be noticed in this instance. Despite its recognition, however, household art has not been developed satisfactorily as an art topic because of the lack of an organization of materials. As a result, much of this activity has been taken over by the household or domestic-arts teacher, and in a large majority of the schools only the girls have benefited. Regardless of the agency administering the household-art objective in the schools, a worthy art enterprise is being developed, and all pupils should participate.

¹ Adapted from William G. Whitford, *An Introduction to Art Education*, pp. 97-98. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1929.

Drawing and painting.—Figure 2 shows clearly that the principal art activity suggested before 1900 was drawing and painting. This emphasis was a result of the practice of securing teachers of art from the professional art schools. The subject was new and undeveloped; hence, the practice appeared logical. Consequently, subject matter and procedures of the technical art school were introduced into the public school. Geometric drawing, renderings from casts and still life, and formal perspective studies have been the principal items transferred to art education. Although these practices hold tenaciously, they are disappearing gradually or are serving other ends in a correlative way. To illustrate, narrative illustration has been made a valuable means for integrating art with the regular school program. The social studies, literature, special days, and science offer live content for illustration and design. Tedious studies from casts or still life and mechanical perspective have been supplemented by free-hand informational drawing of interesting objects and of nature. In mechanical drawing technical proficiency has been replaced by practice in reading working drawings used in common needs.

Art appreciation.—Appreciation of beauty in nature and in art occupied a relatively small place in early suggestions for subject matter in art. Although appreciation was a desired objective, few direct approaches, if any, were provided for its attainment. Today the appreciation of all objects of fine artistic quality—whether manufactured articles, paintings, automobiles, objects in nature or in the home—is being definitely planned for as an enterprise in art. A variety of methods for teaching appreciation have been proposed in recent years. These methods are mainly of five types: (1) directed observation, (2) techniques, (3) artistic environment, (4) facts about painting and artists, and (5) correlation with other subjects.

Directed observation is gaining in favor among art educators. When directed observation is used, the elements of beauty in objects of art are pointed out carefully, and the pupil is led to "intelligent seeing" or "awareness of beauty" in nature and visual materials of all kinds. The perceptual factor is emphasized rather than execution of drawings, and all practical work contributes to the development of the perception and analysis of beauty. This method is based on the assumption that a language common to all the arts will be

developed. Obviously, the basic elements and principles of art defined by the Federated Council on Art Education constitute the chief reference for such a basic language.

Two points of view exist concerning the use of technique for appreciational purposes. One group of art educators holds that the attempt to teach appreciation in art through the execution of art is of doubtful value. These persons claim that the masses of the pupils are incapable of producing good line and form and color and that they are therefore discouraged. In contrast, another group states that technical instruction is given as much with a view of developing appreciation of art as with a view of creating proficiency in art materials. In support of the latter opinion, a majority of art educators believe that the development of taste or of judgment in *any* selection requires at least a limited experience in art expression and that amateur skill in any field extends one's appreciation of fine performance in that field.

Likewise, two tendencies exist as to the relative values of acquiring facts about painting and artists. Some art educators place much emphasis on the history of art, the story of the picture, and "art statistics," so to speak, while others stress the feeling or emotional reaction obtained by fine relations of art elements apart from the subject. Although reliable specific guidance in developing the emotional phase of appreciation is lacking, the number of inquiries regarding this phase is increasing.

In the matter of correlation in teaching appreciation, it is distinctly in vogue to consider objects of art which have direct connection with other phases of the school program. The tendency is not to force an unnatural correlation. Teachers realize that the prime function of education is child development and that all subjects should co-operate in the common purpose.

Industrial art.—There has been a marked increase in the use of modeling, crafts, and handwork of various kinds as methods for teaching the industrial phase of art education. Controlling ideas in this movement are to introduce the child to his vast industrial inheritance and to provide for his physical development. Some of the handicrafts suggested as manipulative activities are paper-tearing and cutting, the making of pottery and tiles, ornamental cement-

work, cardboard construction, metal-work, sand-table construction, woodwork, leather-work, soap-carving, book-binding, pamphlet-making, and large construction in connection with the social studies. Modeling consists chiefly in rendering in clay animals, figures, and heads. The manufacturing phase is presented by a study of raw materials, factory processes, and delivery to consumer.

Suggestions for other phases of art education.—Civic art, advertising art, history and survey of art, graphic arts, and theater arts have been proposed a number of times, each as valuable material for teaching art. However, the literature of the art associations up to 1930 presents few constructive data with regard to the organization and adaptation of these subjects to the public school.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The data of this study reveal the following significant tendencies in art education during the past forty years.

1. The development of appreciation of beauty, the training of powers of observation and visual judgment, and the development of a graphic vocabulary have been major aims of art education throughout the period of this study.
2. The development of good taste and discrimination, both in the selection of personal items and in creating beauty in one's environment, has become a major objective of art education during the past decade.
3. Drawing has been changed from an end in itself—its position in 1900—to a means of clarifying ideas in the thinking process and a means of contributing to the integrated school program.
4. Free expression has been greatly encouraged in recent years to stimulate originality and to meet the child's needs.
5. Since 1920 emphasis has been given a number of secondary objectives: (a) Relate art to industry. (b) Furnish a valuable use of leisure. (c) Discover and guide talent. (d) Give historical and impersonal facts about art.
6. The development of manual dexterity, technique, motor skills, and mental faculties has declined in importance during the period of this study.
7. The most logical program of subject matter in art incorporates

five major art experiences or activities: drawing and painting, design, color, construction, and appreciation.

8. In recent years a tendency has arisen to stress the practical application of art fundamentals in daily life as an integral part of the program in art.

9. In contrast with their attitude in 1900, teachers and supervisors of art are now questioning the validity of their methods.

10. An extensive search has been made during the past decade for appropriate techniques in teaching appreciation. Among the more favorable methods suggested are (a) directed observation, (b) amateur skill in manipulating art materials, and (c) correlation with other school content.

11. The determination of the fundamentals of art in 1929 precipitated an increase in the attention given to an adequate program for the development of the fundamentals.

12. Although the need for tests and standards has been felt for many years, definite attempts to devise such measures have been made only in the past decade.

MOTION-PICTURE PREFERENCES OF ADULTS AND CHILDREN

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For some time parents and, more recently, teachers have been active in reviewing motion pictures and recommending the better pictures. Before any recommendations are made, it would seem that the differences in adult and juvenile preferences should be studied.

The study briefly reported here does not pretend to be strictly scientific. The number of subjects was small; the adults were not a selected group, except for the fact that all were men and all were teachers doing graduate work at Teachers College, Columbia University. The children were pupils in the Horace Mann School of the same institution.

A list of fifty well-known films of the season of 1930-31 was given the subjects, with the directions to underline the titles of all the films they had seen, to indicate the three which they had liked best and the three which they had liked least, and to "name something you especially liked" in the three films liked and to "name something you did not like" in the three films not liked. The space provided for these comments was purposely limited.

The films were rated by grade groups, boys and girls separately, by the use of the formula explained below. A film was rated if seen by eight or more in a group. M represents the films liked the most and D the films liked the least. M was given a weight of 3; neutral (a film seen but not marked either M or D), 2; and D , 1. T represents the number of persons who saw the films. The formula is as follows:

$$\frac{(3 \times M) + 2[T - (M + D)] + (1 \times D)}{T}$$

For example, "All Quiet on the Western Front" was seen by 21 men, was liked by 10, and was not liked by 4.

$$\frac{(3 \times 10) + 2[21 - (10 + 4)] + (1 \times 4)}{21} = 2.28$$

Thus, the rating of a film may fairly be said to represent the consensus of opinion of a group. The films were arranged in order of the ratings. When the top ten films chosen by the different groups in the school were compared with the top ten chosen by the men, the greatest similarity was found in the preferences of the men and the girls of the Senior class in the high school. Five identical films appeared among the first ten listed by each of these two groups, namely, "All Quiet on the Western Front," "Holiday," "Old English," "Tom Sawyer," and "With Byrd at the South Pole." The boys of the Senior class and the men teachers listed four identical films among the first ten: "All Quiet on the Western Front," "Abraham Lincoln," "Old English," and "With Byrd at the South Pole." Perhaps if all had seen the same films, more evidences of similar tastes would have appeared.

The young people had seen many more films than had the teachers. At Horace Mann School the children in the Junior year of the high school attend motion pictures more frequently than the children in any other grade. The median number of films on the list which had been seen by the boys of the Junior class was eighteen. Motion-picture attendance on the part of the younger children in this school is rather carefully restricted by their parents; the median number of films on the list which had been seen by the boys of the sixth grade was only nine. The group of teachers had seen even fewer pictures; the median number of films seen by the teachers was six. Perhaps it would be interesting to compare the pictures best liked by these two low-attendance groups, composed of fifty-two teachers and thirty-five sixth-grade boys. The ten films rated highest by these two groups are given in Table I. Three films appear on both the lists. "All Quiet on the Western Front," "With Byrd at the South Pole," and "Tom Sawyer" were favorites with both the men teachers and the sixth-grade boys, although there is a difference in the degree to which these films were liked.

There are certain films on the men's list which could not possibly have been chosen by the boys, and vice versa. The men liked "Old English," "Holiday," "Anna Christie," and "Kismet." The boys could not possibly like these films for, as the few who saw them said, they have "too much love," or they are "too sad," or they have "no

story" and "no action." The acting in these films especially interested the men, and the appearances of George Arliss, Ann Harding, and Greta Garbo were mentioned as reasons for liking the pictures. The men also liked Marlene Dietrich in "Morocco." This story of desert romance and intrigue was generally disliked by the boys who saw it, except by some boys in the Senior year in high school. "Morocco," the boys said, was "sentimental bosh," was "slow moving," "had a sad ending," and "nothing much happened." The

TABLE I
TEN FILMS RATED HIGHEST BY FIFTY-TWO MEN TEACHERS AND BY
THIRTY-FIVE SIXTH-GRADE BOYS AND RATINGS
ASSIGNED EACH FILM

Name of Film	Rating	Name of Film	Rating
Men:		Boys:	
With Byrd at the South Pole..	2.88	All Quiet on the Western Front	2.64
Old English.....	2.61	Trader Horn.....	2.63
Tom Sawyer.....	2.53	Charley's Aunt.....	2.43
Holiday.....	2.50	Check and Double Check....	2.39
Abraham Lincoln.....	2.46	Tom Sawyer.....	2.37
Anna Christie.....	2.46	City Lights.....	2.36
Kismet.....	2.38	The Virginian.....	2.33
All Quiet on the Western Front	2.28	Dawn Patrol.....	2.27
The Big Trail.....	2.24	With Byrd at the South Pole.	2.27
Morocco.....	2.22	Feet First.....	2.24

hostile attitude to some of these films changed in the higher grades. Arliss' film "Old English" appears among the top films listed by the boys in the Junior and the Senior years, instead of among the low-ranking films. Even "Morocco" was given an almost neutral rating (2.06) by the Senior boys. From the sixth-grade point of view, "nothing much happened" in all these favorites of the men except love, and that was disliked.

The films which the boys liked greatly and the men did not like were four comedies in which the chief interest, for the sixth-grade boys at least, was in the comical action and the dialogue of comedians, namely, Charles Ruggles in "Charley's Aunt," Amos and Andy in "Check and Double Check," Harold Lloyd in "Feet First," and Charles Chaplin in "City Lights." Among the older boys in the school, these comedians, with one exception, lost the high rating given by the younger group. The one exception is Charles Chaplin,

whose film "City Lights" was ranked high by the boys of all grades. It appeared among the ten favorites of the boys in the three years of the Senior high school, not merely as comedy, but because of its artistic values. A few among the teachers had the same opinions about Chaplin's work, but the men gave this film a low rating (1.83), which placed it among the films least liked. Harold Lloyd's "Feet First," which was given a rating of 2.24 by the sixth-grade boys, was given a rating of 1.75 by the men.

The most frequent expressions of approval used by the sixth-grade boys were the words "funny" and "exciting." The men most frequently approved a film because of "the acting." The boys' reasons for liking often included a special scene, evidently vividly recalled; the men's, seldom. Both groups agreed in liking pictures of adventure, especially when the films are realistic—actually real (as in the Byrd film) or apparently so (as in a film with good historical background). Interesting information—about pioneers or war or the life of wild animals or maneuvers of aeroplanes—caused both groups to enjoy a picture. Admiration for courage and accomplishment was very potent in winning approval for a film, not only among these two groups, but among all the groups—among boys and girls in all grades of the school from the sixth grade up. The older boys and girls, however, were very critical—more so than the group of men—of what appeared to be faked heroics. By these experienced critics the action in "The Big Trail," for instance, was considered "too heroic," with "over-exaggerated hardships." The Senior boys gave this film a neutral rating (2.00), although the Senior girls gave it a slightly higher rating. The Junior boys and girls gave this picture a low place among the films least liked. The men, however, gave "The Big Trail" a rating of 2.24.

Three identical films, as has been shown, appear among the favorites of both the men and the sixth-grade boys. The liking for a particular film, however, may mean different kinds of liking, a different selection of what to like. Alice Miller Mitchell rightly describes a photoplay as a "movie pie,"¹ for various ingredients go into its making. Some persons like one ingredient; some, another. The

¹ Alice Miller Mitchell, *Children and Movies*, p. 96. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929.

younger boys (sixth grade through the ninth grade), when asked on this questionnaire to "name something you especially liked," often named some specific scene, some high point in the story, or something funny. The differences in the likings of two such dissimilar groups as sixth-grade boys and men teachers show clearly in the following comments.

Teacher: "In 'Dawn Patrol' I liked the theme of life carrying on despite the number who were lost."

Boy: "In 'Dawn Patrol' I liked when they blow up a powder factory."

Teacher: "In 'Cimarron' I liked the success of Sabra, her devotion to her husband."

Boy: "In 'Cimarron' I liked the rush into Oklahoma."

Teacher: "'City Lights' was artistic. I liked the sensitive underplaying of the final scene."

Boy: "In 'City Lights' I liked when Charlie Chaplin fell in the lake."

The following comments also suggest differences in age and experience:

Teacher: "In 'Outward Bound' I liked the dream part and moral."

Boy: "I don't like 'Outward Bound.' I don't understand it."

Teacher: "'Tom Sawyer' was all boy. Showed life dominated by other passions, not just sex."

Boy: "'Tom Sawyer' was funny, exciting. I liked in the cave."

Teacher [age given as over forty]: "In 'The Man Who Came Back' I liked the mutual agreement to overlook the past in each other's life."

Boy: "I did not like 'The Man Who Came Back.' Too much mush."

What one likes and dislikes in a motion picture seems to be a sort of test of one's self. Each person watching a film takes away an impression which is conditioned by his age and experience of life. The younger person tends to imagine himself the hero; he applauds courage and achievement and looks forward to his own brave deeds. The older person occasionally, as in the Byrd film, has similar admiration for real accomplishment and for individuals. The adult tends, however, to look backward, comparing the make-believe life he sees on the screen with what he himself knows about life. This reflective attitude of the adult appears in the comment of a teacher who liked "Outward Bound," "Tol'able David" and "The Virginian" because they "were linked with a common element in my own experience plus something better."

The younger person's keener interest in motion pictures and his more vivid and more lasting memory of what he sees make it necessary to select screen "heroes" who are worth admiring and imitating. Can his older friend, teacher or parent, help him in the problem of selection? As adviser, the adult should be patient with the boy's need of something to laugh at and should not try to teach his own mature way of looking for the moral or of liking sad things in drama. The boy is bound to grow up, and his growth will be reflected in his screen preferences. The standards of judgment of the boy's own group are good standards for him, provided the group is composed of intelligent persons. At least, the writer of this article can say, as a result of several studies, that the children in the Horace Mann School are capable of making their own standards of judgment of films.

The study reported here may perhaps suggest to the reader the value of some large-scale studies of adult and juvenile screen preferences. Dissimilarities were apparent, but in the two groups studied certain definite similarities were found which suggest common sources of enjoyment and a basis for real contact and helpful friendship, if only teachers and pupils would sometimes go together to the pictures.

THE LENGTH OF THE PERIOD AND PUPIL ACHIEVEMENT IN HIGH SCHOOL

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THE PROBLEM

For some years the tendency of school administrators has been to replace the traditional high-school class period of forty to forty-five minutes with a period of sixty minutes or more. The principal reason for establishing the minimum length of class period at forty minutes is the fact that the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools at an early date imposed that requirement as one of the standards for membership in its organization. In recent years, however, the Commission on Secondary Schools has looked with favor on the lengthening of the class period; in the *North Central Association Quarterly* for June, 1932, the commission listed as one of the desirable trends in the development of secondary schools the fact that "a larger number of schools are using the lengthened class period."¹

The increasing popularity of the lengthened class period is shown by the summaries of the annual reports of secondary schools accredited by the North Central Association for the years 1930-32. In the report of 1930 the total number of high schools belonging to the association was 2,226. Of this number, 1,597 schools were using class periods of from 40 to 54 minutes in length, and 542 were using periods from 55 to 64 minutes in length. In the report for 1931-32, of a total membership of 2,387 schools, 1,553 schools were using class periods of from 40 to 54 minutes in length, and 782 were using periods of from 55 to 64 minutes in length.² These figures show a gain of

¹ "Proceedings of the Commission on Secondary Schools," *North Central Association Quarterly*, VII (June, 1932), 72.

² *Ibid.*, pp. 73-74.

approximately 44 per cent in the number of schools using a lengthened period. Can the introduction of the lengthened period be justified on the basis of pupil achievement? The studies reported in this article were undertaken to show the relative efficiency of long and short class periods as indicated by pupils' scores on objective tests in several subjects in the high-school curriculum.

The data on which the studies are based were secured from two independent sources. In the first study data were secured from tests given in the high schools of several states. The data used in the second study were secured directly from the reports of high schools in the Iowa Academic Meet, in which objective tests are given under the direction of the University of Iowa.

"Long periods," as hereafter used in this study, will mean class periods of from fifty-five to sixty-five minutes in length, and "short periods" will mean class periods from forty to forty-five minutes in length.

THE FIRST STUDY

In reply to a letter sent to high-school principals in North Dakota, South Dakota, Minnesota, and Wisconsin, asking their co-operation in administering tests in their schools, favorable replies were received from thirty-eight high schools, fifteen of which employed long periods and twenty-three short periods. The test used was an objective test in United States history constructed for the Iowa Academic Meet. Three hundred pupils from schools having long periods participated and 287 pupils from schools having short periods. The average score of the pupils in the schools with long periods is 47.48, with a standard deviation of 18.46. The average score of the pupils in schools with short periods is 40.33, with a standard deviation of 16.29. The difference of the averages is 5.00 times the standard error of the difference (1.43). Consequently, the difference in this study is markedly significant and is conclusively in favor of the pupils in schools having long periods of recitation.

THE SECOND STUDY

The data used in the first study are indicative of the comparative achievement of pupils in long- and short-period recitations. They do not, however, represent a sufficient number of cases to convince

the critical reader, nor do the findings of the first study necessarily imply that, since the scores made on a history test by pupils in schools using long periods were higher than those made by pupils in schools with short periods, the same would be true of tests in other subjects.

The next problem was to secure similar data for a much larger number of pupils and for a wide range of subjects. The scores of pupils in the Iowa Academic Meet were therefore used. A rather complete record of the scores earned in this meet is on file in the College of Education, University of Iowa, and the data used in the second study were obtained from these records. In the Iowa Academic Meet objective tests in certain academic subjects are given to pupils in the high schools of the state during the second semester each year for the purpose of determining pupil achievement. Responsibility for administering the tests is assumed by the principal of each high school. The University sponsors the meet, constructs the tests, and furnishes them to the high schools at the cost of production. All scores are checked at the University.

In the present study consideration was given only to those schools which were members of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in order that the conditions set up by that organization, such as pupil-teacher ratio, courses of study, pupil load, and preparation of teachers, would be somewhat constant. Reports from all the schools participating in the Iowa Academic Meet showed that twenty-five high schools in the state were operating with class periods of from fifty-five to sixty-five minutes in length. Of this number, three schools were eliminated because of the small numbers enrolled. Sixteen schools, yielding an adequate number of cases for the purpose of this study, were chosen at random from this group of twenty-two schools. Each of these sixteen high schools was paired with a high school using a period of from forty to forty-five minutes in length and having approximately the same enrollment, the same number of teachers, and the same general educational conditions.

The subjects chosen were those which are required or which are rather generally elected by pupils in planning their programs. In this way a fairly representative sample of scores was obtained. Alge-

bra, American government, American literature, English literature, general science, physics, plane geometry, United States history, and

TABLE I

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES IN TEST ON AMERICAN LITERATURE
MADE BY PUPILS IN SIXTEEN IOWA HIGH SCHOOLS USING
LONG PERIODS AND BY PUPILS IN SIXTEEN PAIRED SCHOOLS
USING SHORT PERIODS

SCORE	NUMBER OF PUPILS IN SCHOOLS WITH—	
	Long Periods	Short Periods
168-72	1	1
163-67	3	0
158-62	7	4
153-57	9	6
148-52	11	6
143-47	20	7
138-42	28	10
133-37	39	8
128-32	39	18
123-27	42	31
118-22	42	25
113-17	41	29
108-12	50	47
103-7	55	51
98-102	51	64
93-97	49	61
88-92	64	60
83-87	54	68
78-82	55	58
73-77	46	61
68-72	40	64
63-67	36	52
58-62	28	37
53-57	25	37
48-52	13	27
43-47	9	23
38-42	4	17
33-37	3	8
28-32	2	3
23-27	2	4
19-22	0	4
13-18	0	0
8-12	0	1
Total	868	901
Average*	98.9	87.0
Standard deviation	27.9	26.7

* The standard error of the difference is 1.3. The difference is 9.2 times the standard error of the difference.

world-history appeared to be the subjects most commonly studied and were the subjects selected for the purpose of the experiment.

For each subject, distributions of pupils' scores from the sixteen schools were made, one distribution for the scores of pupils in schools using long periods and another for the scores of pupils in schools using short periods. Limitation of space permits the inclusion of the distribution for only one subject, which is found in Table I. In a few instances complete reports for a subject were not available for certain schools. In such cases no data for that subject were used

TABLE II
SUMMARY OF STATISTICAL DATA SECURED FROM TESTS GIVEN PUPILS IN IOWA
HIGH SCHOOLS USING LONG AND SHORT PERIODS

SUBJECT	NUMBER OF PUPILS		AVERAGE SCORE		STANDARD DEVIATION		DIFFERENCE IN AVER-AGES	STAND-ARD ER-ROR OF DIFFERENCE	DIFFER-ENCE DIVIDED BY STAND-ARD ER-ROR OF DIFFER-ENCE
	Long Periods	Short Periods	Long Periods	Short Periods	Long Periods	Short Periods			
Algebra.....	1,215	1,242	37.7	32.3	17.9	14.2	5.4	0.7	7.7
American govern-ment.....	754	723	84.5	77.2	24.6	21.6	7.3	1.2	6.1
American literature	868	901	98.9	87.0	27.9	26.7	11.9	1.3	9.2
English literature.	828	514	98.1	90.0	26.3	29.6	8.1	1.5	5.4
General science...	512	550	53.8	52.3	18.7	20.2	1.5	2.0	0.8
Physics.....	599	600	37.4	36.9	17.2	18.3	0.5	1.0	0.5
Plane geometry...	1,071	1,104	16.1	12.1	10.1	6.4	4.0	0.4	10.0
United States his-tory.....	778	902	56.7	51.7	20.5	19.3	5.0	1.0	5.0
World-history.....	764	929	48.0	46.6	19.0	17.6	1.4	0.8	1.8

from that school. This procedure resulted in the use of only ten pairs of schools in general science. In some schools a subject was not offered in the ninth grade. These two conditions account for the small number of scores in general science. The number of pupils in each subject in each group of schools ranged from 512 in general science to 1,242 in algebra.

The complete summarized data for the groups using long and short periods are given in Table II. In each of the nine subjects the group of pupils having the longer recitation period was superior. In six subjects—algebra, American government, American literature, English literature, plane geometry, and United States history—the differences are statistically significant. However, the fact that all the differences are in favor of the group having the long recita-

tion period is in itself highly significant; small differences all favoring one group display a consistency which has significance aside from the size of the differences. In the case of physics the total recitation time for the long-recitation group was not much greater than the total time for the short-recitation group because some schools using long periods gave only five periods a week to physics, while schools having shorter periods gave the customary seven periods to provide for laboratory work.

The findings of these studies afford rather conclusive evidence of the value of the longer period in securing higher achievement by pupils in the subjects considered in the schools involved. The results supply some justification for the changes to the longer recitation period that have already taken place, and they afford those administrators who may be contemplating lengthening the periods substantial reasons for making the change.

THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS OF SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

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The broadening of the scope of the civics course to include social and economic problems and, more recently, the development of a unified treatment of history and the social studies extending throughout the three years of the junior high school call for teachers who are adequately prepared to interpret material drawn from a variety of fields. For example, even a most thorough knowledge of the structure of government constitutes, in itself, very poor preparation to meet the demands of these newer courses. Similarly, the teacher well prepared in history will find himself seriously handicapped in this work unless his training has also included large contact with political science, economics, sociology, and related subjects. The need is for diversification rather than for narrow specialization in training.

The writer has at hand some facts which indicate the extent to which teachers engaged in teaching social-science courses in junior high schools are prepared in history, political science, economics, and sociology. It will doubtless be conceded that some acquaintance with each of these fields should constitute a desirable minimum of training for this group of teachers.

Each of 118 teachers of social science employed in junior high schools during the school year 1929-30 or 1930-31 supplied a statement of the number of semester hours which he or she had completed in normal school or college in each of the subjects mentioned. The results of a compilation of these statements of training are shown in Table I. The fact that the teachers were employed in junior high schools widely scattered throughout the states should serve to discount the effect of state certification laws or local standards of recruitment. All but seven of these teachers have had training in history. The quartiles and the medians indicate that the teachers of

social studies have received the major part of their preparation in history rather than in the related fields. Indeed, their preparation in the other subjects, which may be accepted as essential to a thorough grasp of the material with which their teaching must deal, is exceedingly meager. Approximately a third of the teachers are without preparation in political science, and the same proportion have had no instruction in economics and sociology. The median number of semester hours in subjects other than history in which these teachers have received training is indeed exceedingly small. We may conclude from these data, assuming that the sample is fairly repre-

TABLE I
SEMESTER HOURS OF PREPARATION IN HIGHER INSTITUTIONS IN
VARIOUS SOCIAL-SCIENCE FIELDS REPORTED BY
118 TEACHERS OF SOCIAL STUDIES

SUBJECT	NUMBER OF TEACHERS WITHOUT PREPARATION	SEMESTER HOURS OF PREPARATION		
		First Quartile	Median	Third Quartile
History.....	7	10.00	19.71	29.58
Political science.....	41	0.00	3.70	10.00
Economics.....	38	0.00	3.47	6.94
Sociology.....	38	0.00	3.47	6.94

sentative, that the average teacher of social studies in the junior high school is inadequately prepared for the task which confronts him.

To present, by way of comparison, some standard which might be accepted as constituting adequate preparation, the writer will cite the certification regulations of a single state and the distribution of the preparation of teachers of the social studies proposed by an investigator in the field. Both these sources propose minimum amounts of training to be demanded of teachers of social studies in four-year high schools. The writer has chosen to make these comparisons advisedly. If the junior high school organization is to become general in American education, the organization of six-year schools, or some other combination of grades which will form a unified secondary school enrolling, with the junior high school, pupils above the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades, will become necessary. The three-year unit, as at present, will tend to be confined to the

larger centers of population. It is reasonable to expect that training institutions shall prepare teachers qualified to teach in any grade of this six-year school. The continued recruitment at the junior high school level of a body of teachers inferior to the teachers in the senior high school with respect to preparation in the teaching field would be, in the opinion of the writer, highly undesirable and entirely indefensible.

In Indiana, a state which has been a leader in the development of the movement for certification by subject, a teacher desiring credentials entitling him to teach the social studies must submit the following credits earned in higher institutions: general history, twelve semester hours; United States history, twelve semester hours; economics, science of government, and sociology, twelve semester hours; total, thirty-six semester hours.¹ The distribution of the preparation of teachers of the social studies suggested by Bachman² is even farther beyond the attainment of the group of junior high school teachers studied by the writer. Bachman proposes that the number of semester hours of preparation in related subjects to be required of teachers of the social studies shall be as follows: ancient and medieval history, six; modern European history, twelve; American history, twelve; government, six; economics, six; and physical and industrial geography, six; or a total of forty-eight. In economics, political science, or sociology only a small proportion of the teachers under consideration could qualify under either of the standards described. The average teacher has completed approximately half the total number of semester hours suggested.

The situation here depicted is but another example of a condition which, as is indicated by data assembled elsewhere by the present writer and by other investigators, is not limited to a single subject field nor to the junior high school; the situation is all too prevalent throughout the whole reach of the secondary school. Factors such as inadequate training programs, unsatisfactory laws concerning certification, and haphazard assignment of teachers to subject combina-

¹ *Teacher Training and Licencing in Indiana*, p. 26. Educational Bulletin No. 94. Indianapolis, Indiana: State Board of Education, 1930 (revised).

² Frank P. Bachman, *The Training and Certification of High School Teachers*, p. 142. Field Studies No. 2. Nashville, Tennessee: Division of Surveys and Field Studies, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1930.

tions for which they lack preparation suggest themselves as direct contributing causes. Each of these factors is amenable to modification and improvement. Certification by subject must come to be required more generally, and improved administrative practice must operate to remedy the condition. It is time that school executives, those responsible for teacher-training institutions, and others contributing to the development of the American secondary school should come to realize the impossibility of securing efficient teaching from teachers who are often almost totally unprepared in the background of knowledge which they are expected to impart to their pupils.

However, at the same time that we move toward insisting on special preparation in the fields taught, we shall need to work toward a new conception of what is involved in specialization of teaching. In doing so, we shall need to break down some of the traditional collegiate barriers between aspects of the same large field. An instance of the desirable integration, for purposes of teacher preparation, of fields too often regarded as distinct is to be found in the fields of history, political science, economics, and sociology represented in the illustrative material cited. It is easy to think of other large fields of instruction that would lend themselves to similar integration for instructional purposes at the secondary level.

GROUP USE OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL LIBRARY

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The progressive school principal is vitally interested in the service rendered by the school library. It is, indeed, the heart of the institution. In the early grades of the secondary school a great portion of the library's service is devoted to group activity. Frequent opportunities are offered for free reading and reference work. It is confidently hoped that the pupil, following this introduction to the world of books in the junior high school, will carry on his reading interests through individual participation.

The study reported in this article was undertaken with a view of determining the extent to which the junior high school library is used for group purposes. The word "group" is used here with exactly the same meaning as the word "class." Any number of pupils who meet regularly as one class, under the care of some one teacher, and for the purpose of pursuing similar lines of study are designated as a group.

The data on which this article is based were gathered from a study of twelve junior high schools which on the average were not particularly outstanding nor noticeably inferior. The enrolments of these schools range from 112 to 1,475, with an average enrolment of 567. Four schools are located in California; three, in Indiana; two, in New Jersey; one, in Arkansas; one, in Illinois; and one, in New York.

These data indicate that the use of the library by groups is more prevalent in the early than in the later years of the secondary school. During a term of 20 weeks in the school year 1931-32, the library was used by groups during 1,916 periods in 12 junior high schools. In 12 senior high schools the library was so used during only 1,479 periods. When reduced to daily averages per school, the figures show that an average of 1.6 groups visited the library in the junior high school in comparison with 1.2 in the senior high school. It seems that, by the time he reaches the senior high school, the pupil is

supposed to have learned to work independently, and he must then satisfy his literary appetite through his own efforts.

The study shows that during approximately a fourth of the day the junior high school library was occupied by various classes at work on some type of group activity. It should be interesting to note exactly why they were there.

The extent to which different subject-matter departments sent groups to the library is shown in Table I. The English department easily tops the list with 696 library visits. The free reading done in this department decreased steadily throughout the junior high school period, and the reference reading showed a corresponding increase. Lessons in library usage are most often given through the English department. A large portion of the library activity of the guidance department was also given over to free reading, although almost entirely in the ninth grade. This finding may be accounted for by the fact that many junior high schools offer classes in guidance in the ninth grade only. No other department made great use of the library for free reading. It is difficult to understand why classes in physical education and music should have used the library for free reading only. Two of the schools studied, however, had limited facilities in these two departments and probably sent groups to the library merely because the classes could not be accommodated elsewhere. As might be expected, the science and the social-studies departments devoted most of their time to reference reading. The free reading in these departments was done almost entirely in the lower grades of the junior high school.

It is encouraging to note that the shop classes correlated their laboratory work with related reference reading in the library. The ninth-grade shop classes made no use of the library in groups. This fact may be due to one of two reasons. First, correlation between the library and shop work may have been realized through reference reading in the form of individual reports. Such, however, appeared not to be the case. A check on the individual use of the library failed to show any appreciable amount of attendance by pupils from the shop classes. Second, teachers of ninth-grade shop classes may have concerned themselves primarily with mastery of the technical rather than the informative aspects of the job. Because of pupil

TABLE I

NUMBER OF GROUPS IN EACH DEPARTMENT USING THE LIBRARY FOR VARIOUS PURPOSES IN TWELVE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS DURING TWENTY WEEKS

Department and Grade	Free Reading	Reference	Recitation	Study of Textbook	Library Instruction	Total
English:						
VII.....	142	22	53	10	37	264
VIII.....	64	18	38	11	23	154
IX.....	54	96	41	3	84	278
Total.....	260	136	132	24	144	696
Guidance:						
VII.....	0	10	0	0	0	10
VIII.....	4	5	0	0	0	9
IX.....	124	89	52	0	4	269
Total.....	128	104	52	0	4	288
History:						
VII.....	5	8	4	0	0	17
VIII.....	3	52	4	0	0	59
IX.....	0	104	0	0	0	104
Total.....	8	164	8	0	0	180
Geography:						
VII.....	0	35	28	0	4	67
VIII.....	0	17	12	20	0	49
IX.....	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total.....	0	52	40	20	4	116
Civics:						
VII.....	0	0	0	0	0	0
VIII.....	0	5	19	0	0	24
IX.....	16	19	49	0	0	84
Total.....	16	24	68	0	0	108
Language:						
VII.....	0	0	0	0	0	0
VIII.....	0	0	0	13	16	29
IX.....	28	20	20	7	0	75
Total.....	28	20	20	20	16	104
Science:						
VII.....	0	0	0	0	0	0
VIII.....	11	48	0	0	0	59
IX.....	9	32	0	0	0	41
Total.....	20	80	0	0	0	100
Shop:						
VII.....	8	4	0	0	0	12
VIII.....	4	76	0	0	0	80
IX.....	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total.....	12	80	0	0	0	92

TABLE I—*Continued*

Department and Grade	Free Reading	Reference	Recitation	Study of Textbook	Library Instruction	Total
Physical education:						
VII.....	20	0	0	0	0	20
VIII.....	23	0	0	0	0	23
IX.....	17	0	0	0	0	17
Total.....	60	0	0	0	0	60
Commerce:						
VII.....	0	0	0	0	0	0
VIII.....	6	20	0	11	0	37
IX.....	10	0	0	9	0	19
Total.....	16	20	0	20	0	56
Art:						
VII.....	0	6	0	0	0	6
VIII.....	15	14	0	0	0	29
IX.....	9	0	0	0	0	9
Total.....	24	20	0	0	0	44
Mathematics:						
VII.....	0	0	3	0	0	3
VIII.....	0	0	12	0	0	12
IX.....	4	20	5	0	0	29
Total.....	4	20	20	0	0	44
Music:						
VII.....	15	0	0	0	0	15
VIII.....	9	0	0	0	0	9
IX.....	4	0	0	0	0	4
Total.....	28	0	0	0	0	28
Grand total.....	604	720	340	84	168	1,916
Per cent.....	31	38	18	4	9	100

election of subjects in most junior high schools, it is probable that ninth-grade shop classes enrol pupils who have discovered interests in particular activities. If that be true, this interest is partially related to the vocational intentions of the pupils. With this point in mind, the shop teacher might easily neglect the broader implications of the course, stressing mainly the necessary skills and techniques. The data in this study, however, are not sufficient to justify this conclusion. The figures merely point out that teachers of ninth-grade shop classes make little or no use of the library for group activity.

In the schools studied it seems obvious that free reading has come to stay. Probably much of the free reading is done through individual library usage; yet 31 per cent of the time devoted to the use

of the library by groups may be properly designated as free reading. This percentage represents a real achievement in providing for individual differences and diversified interests. Reference reading, however, ranks first with 38 per cent.

The forms used in this study called for a report of the use made of the library for recitation purposes. The term "recitation" is defined as a group activity similar to that which ordinarily takes place in the regular classroom. It does not include study activities nor use of reference materials which are not aspects of the regular classroom recitation. It includes the more common classroom exercises, such as class discussions, written and oral reports, textbook reading, and testing. The library was too often used for recitations, such activities ranking third with a percentage of 18. Study of a textbook accounted for 4 per cent of the group activity in the library. These two activities combined occupied 22 per cent of the time during which the library was used for group purposes. Stated simply, nearly a fourth of the time devoted to group library usage was employed in activities which might just as well have been conducted in the classroom, the expensive library equipment being thus reserved for its proper use.

Throughout the week a steady increase in group usage was noted. Daily totals for the twelve schools show that, as the week progressed, heavier demands were made on the library facilities for group activity. Monday with 210, Tuesday with 343, Wednesday with 433, Thursday with 401, and Friday with 529 yield the total of 1,916 group visits. When reduced to individual school averages, these figures represent an average of 0.9 of a group using the library on Monday, 1.4 groups on Tuesday, 1.8 on Wednesday, 1.7 on Thursday, and 2.1 on Friday. It would be interesting to discover what ratio exists between these figures and the use made of the library by individual pupils.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON THE EXTRA-CURRICULUM

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The list of selected references that follows¹ is a continuation of the annual summaries of investigations of extra-curriculum activities which were prepared by the writer and published in earlier volumes of the *School Review*. The first summary covered the literature that appeared in the year 1929. This summary and the two that succeeded it together with the list given in the present article cover the literature published in the years 1929, 1930, 1931, and 1932, with the exception of the period from January 1 to March 31, 1932. The materials that were published during these three months are listed in the *Record of Current Educational Publications* covering this period (United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 13, 1932).

In the three earlier summaries to which reference has been made, 30 professional books and 207 magazine articles and monographs pertaining to the field of extra-curriculum activities were listed and annotated. The list below cites four professional books and forty-eight articles and monographs.²

243. ASTELL, LOUIS A. "High-School Chemistry Clubs," *Science Education*, XVI (April, 1932), 277-81.

A brief presentation of facts concerning the organization and the activities of seventy-nine chemistry clubs.

244. ASTELL, LOUIS A., and ODELL, CHARLES W. *High School Science Clubs*. Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin No. 60. University of Illinois

¹ It is one of a cycle of twenty lists of selected references, covering practically the whole field of education, which are being published in the twenty issues for 1933 of the *School Review* and the *Elementary School Journal*. In effect, the lists continue the service interrupted by the suspension of publication by the United States Office of Education of the *Record of Current Educational Publications*. The reader will find a prospectus of the lists in the December *School Review* or in the January *Elementary School Journal*.

² See also Items 229, 232, and 242 in the list of selected references in the March issue of the *School Review*.

Bulletin, Vol. XXIX, No. 39. Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois, 1932. Pp. 78.

A descriptive account of the purposes, the activities, and the organization of fifty-five science clubs in Illinois high schools. Includes an excellent annotated bibliography of 403 references.

245. BENNETT, EARL E. "What High-School Pupils Read in School Papers," *School Review*, XL (December, 1932), 772-80.

Presents an analysis of 17,853 question blanks returned by pupils in eighteen high schools in western Pennsylvania concerning the kinds of materials appearing in their school papers which most interested them.

246. BONNETT, HOWBERT B. "Secondary Inter-School Games without Adult Interference," *California Quarterly of Secondary Education*, VII (April, 1932), 310-12.

Discusses the value of the principle of non-interference by adults in high-school games and gives the returns on a question list concerning this principle from sixty-five Pacific coast schools.

247. BORCHERS, GLADYS L. "Radio Dramatizations in Parliamentary Law," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, VII (October, 1932), 77-81.

Tells how a speech class in a high school gave nine lessons in parliamentary law over the radio at the University of Wisconsin.

248. CAMPBELL, WILLIAM G., and REED, RALPH KING. *Coaching High-School Athletics*. Los Angeles, California: C. C. Crawford (University of Southern California), 1932. Pp. 208.

A practical treatise on the common problems of high-school principals and coaches in their efforts to manage athletics with educational ends in view.

249. CARTER, THOMAS M. "Activities of College Students," *Phi Delta Kappan*, XV (August, 1932), 54-58.

A statistical distribution of one week's time spent by 215 students in twelve types of "activities" including extra-curriculum activities.

250. CLARK, ALBERT W. "Extra-Curriculum Activities in the Elementary School," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXII (May, 1932), 691-96.

Discusses the objectives, opportunities, and types of extra-curriculum activities suitable to the growing needs of elementary-school pupils for educational experience of this kind.

251. COLLINS, EARL A., and CHARLTON, ARUBA B. *Puppet Plays in Education*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., Inc., 1932. Pp. xii+138.

A manual on the value, writing, organization, and presentation of puppet plays.

252. DIMOCK, HEDLEY S. "The Conduct Habits of Boy Scouts," *Religious Education*, XXVII (December, 1932), 916-21.

Reviews and criticizes an important scientific investigation in which were presented data concerning the delinquency and the character of one thousand boy scouts and non-scouts.

253. DRAPER, EDGAR M., and CORBALLY, JOHN E. *Extra Curricular Credits*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., Inc., 1932. Pp. viii+142.
Discusses the stimulation and the limitation of extra-curriculum activities, the use of academic and non-academic credit for these activities, and forms for recording such credits.
254. DUDYCHA, GEORGE J. "The Beliefs of College Students concerning the Athlete and the Scholar," *School and Society*, XXXVI (July 23, 1932), 123-28.
Presents the reactions of several hundred Freshmen and Seniors in eight middle western colleges to twenty-five propositions concerning their attitudes toward scholars and athletes.
255. ELIASSEN, R. H. "The Teacher and Extra-Curriculum Activities," *School Review*, XL (May, 1932), 364-71.
Shows the percentages of fifteen hundred teachers engaged in the supervision of various types of activities and reports an analysis of the extent to which they were trained for such work.
256. ELLWOOD, ROBERT S. "Contents of College Newspapers," *Phi Delta Kappan*, XV (June, 1932), 28-29.
A brief analysis of the distribution under twelve topics of the contents of 447 issues of student newspapers issued by thirty institutions of higher learning covering a period of fifteen weeks.
257. FLEENOR, LEONARD A. "The Content of High-School Annuals," *School Review*, XL (June, 1932), 442-48.
A detailed statistical analysis of the size and the content of one hundred annuals published in 1927 by schools scattered throughout the country.
258. FLORY, CHARLES D. "A Study of Non-academic Rules and Regulations in Fifty Co-educational Colleges," *Zeta News* (Zeta Chapter of Phi Delta Kappa, School of Education, University of Chicago), XVII (June, 1932), 3-11.
Reports, among other things, the published rules and regulations pertaining to Freshmen, to fraternities and sororities, and to social functions in coeducational colleges.
259. FRIEDMAN, KOPPLE C., and NEMZEK, CLAUDE L. "The School Magazine in Educational Literature," *School Review*, XL (October, 1932), 620-26. ✓
Lists and annotates thirty-seven selected references bearing on the school magazine and briefly summarizes the findings of several investigations.
260. GAGE, H. M. (Chairman). "Report of the Committee on Athletics," *North Central Association Quarterly*, VII (December, 1932), 274-83.
Discusses the activities, present and past, of the association's Committee on Athletics and presents recommendations pertaining to the attitude of the association on athletics.

261. GRANT, DANIEL L. "Leadership in the Fraternity," *Journal of Higher Education*, III (May, 1932), 257-61.
Discusses the efforts of a national fraternity to improve the intellectual and cultural interests of its members with the aid of a preceptor, a library, and planned discussions in local chapters.
262. HACKETT, WILLIAM ARTHUR. "This Thing Called Debate," *English Journal*, XXI (December, 1932), 810-16.
An interesting and thoughtful discussion of the educational values of different systems of debating.
263. HALLORAN, WILLIAM M. "The Civic Value of the National Oratorical Contest," *Education*, LII (May, 1932), 546-49.
Discusses the value of the participation by thousands of high-school boys and girls in the annual contests concerned with the Constitution.
264. HUMPHREY, ADELE. "The Ephebian Society of Los Angeles," *Education*, LII (May, 1932), 526-29.
A brief account of the history and the activities of an honor society of high-school graduates designed to improve the civic and political leadership of a large city.
265. KEYS, MINNIE. "The Modern Classical Club," *Classical Journal*, XXVII (June, 1932), 658-68.
Describes numerous activities appropriate to classical clubs and gives several references from which interesting programs may be obtained.
266. KULCINSKI, LOUIS. "Interscholastic Grade-School Athletics," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, VII (December, 1932), 243-46.
A strong attack on the practice of interscholastic athletics in the junior high school.
267. LASHLEY, GREY HARVEY. "Colorado Students Draft a Model Constitution," *School and Society*, XXXVI (August 20, 1932), 246-49.
An interesting account of the work of a "convention" of high-school pupils called by a social-science club at Adams State Teachers College to draft a model constitution for the state of Colorado.
268. MCANDREW, WILLIAM. "Unmitigated Nuisances: Commencements and Pageants," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, VI (May, 1932), 518-23.
Gives a thoughtful discussion of stupid and unproductive practices in commencements and pageants and makes constructive suggestions.
269. MCKOWN, HARRY C. "The Place of Student Activities in a Public Relations Program," *Education*, LIII (October, 1932), 77-83.
Discusses the interest of the public in various types of student activities and gives suggestions for directing this interest to educational ends.

270. McMAHON, ERNEST E., and FOSTER, C. R., JR. "The Undergraduate Point of View on Student Participation," *School and Society*, XXXV (June 4, 1932), 768-70.

Gives a summary of the answers of 802 students at Rutgers University to a number of questions concerning their attitude toward certain student organizations and toward their having a voice in the administration of certain college regulations.

271. McMURTREY, G. W. "A Study of the Relationship between Some Factors Which Affect School Work," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXIII (October, 1932), 553-58.

Presents statistical data on the relation of intelligence and scholarship to self-support, participation in athletics, and attendance at dances and "movies" on the part of students at Northern Normal and Industrial School in South Dakota.

272. MATHEWS, C. O. "The Honor System," *Journal of Higher Education*, III (November, 1932), 411-15. ✓

An interesting study of the reactions of 494 college students and 46 faculty members toward 36 situations involving academic honesty and integrity described on a personal-opinion blank.

273. MEHUS, O. MYKING. "Extra-Curricular Activities of College Students," *School and Society*, XXXV (April 23, 1932), 574-76.

Compares the student activities at the University of Minnesota with those at Wittenberg College with respect to organizations found, regulations, extent of participation, and other factors, as revealed by data from a large number of question blanks.

274. MEHUS, O. MYKING. "Extracurricular Activities and Academic Achievement," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, VI (November, 1932), 143-49.

A statistical study of more than a thousand cases in which the intelligence scores and scholarship quotients of non-participants in extra-curriculum activities are compared with those of students participating moderately and actively in such activities at Wittenberg College and at the University of Minnesota.

275. MOLENDYK, CLARA A. "Co-operation in Government," *Education*, LII (May, 1932), 522-25.

A brief account of recent developments in the work of the Co-operation in Government Committee in encouraging the graduates of high schools in New York City to participate in the civic life of the community.

276. MOORE, LAWRENCE H. "Leadership Traits of College Women," *Sociology and Social Research*, XVII (September-October, 1932), 44-54.

A statistical study of the characteristics of student leaders and of the reliability of student judgments concerning these characteristics at the Texas State College for Women at Denton, Texas.

277. PARTRIDGE, E. DEALTON. "Ability in Leadership among Adolescent Boys," *School Review*, XL (September, 1932), 526-31.

Describes an interesting technique for measuring the trait of leadership in the twenty-seven members of a boy-scout troop and compares leadership with age and intelligence.

278. PATTON, LESLIE K. "Undergraduate Student Reports," *Journal of Higher Education*, III (June, 1932), 285-93.

Reviews, criticizes, and weighs the influence of seventeen reports on problems of higher education made by committees of college students since 1924.

279. PAULSEN, OSCAR B. "Budgetary Procedures and Accounting Methods for Student Extra-Curricular Activities," *California Quarterly of Secondary Education*, VII (June, 1932), 365-78.

Gives a list of 41 governing principles based on answers to 50 questions on budgetary procedures in 242 senior high schools of California.

280. PETERS, CHARLES C., and STRUCK, F. THEODORE (Editors). *Abstracts of Studies in Education at the Pennsylvania State College*, Part II. Penn State Studies in Education, No. 4. State College, Pennsylvania: Pennsylvania State College, 1932. Pp. 64.

Abstracts of the following significant investigations appear: V, Robert Ray Merrill, "Can the Practice of Leadership Be Improved by Direct Instruction on the Technique of Leadership? A Controlled Experiment"; IX, Kuhrt Wieneke, "A Comparison of Certain Physical Developments of Freshman Athletes and Non-Athletes: An Experiment Based on Certain Anthropometric Measurements"; XIX, Joseph C. Gill, "The Extent to Which High School Papers Aid in Developing Loyalty."

- ✓ 281. RILEY, ROMANA. "Student Participation in School Administration as Carried Out in 'Midget Savannah,' an Elementary School," *Educational Method*, XII (October, 1932), 31-37.

Tells about the initiation, organization, activities, and achievements of a school-city type of student government.

282. ROEMER, JOSEPH (Editor). *Abstracts of Unpublished Masters' Theses in the Field of Secondary-School Administration*. Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, No. 43. Berwyn, Illinois: Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association (H. V. Church, Executive Secretary), 1932.

The following abstracts pertain to extra-curriculum activities: No. 12, Paul Houchell, "A Study of State and National High School Athletic Associations"; No. 13, Clarence Alvey Huck, "Financing Inter-School Athletics in the Public High Schools of Nebraska"; No. 14, Margaret Jewell Elam, "An Appraisal of Programs of Co-curricular Activities."

283. ROONEY, JOHN R. "Extra-curricular Activities in Catholic High Schools," *Catholic Educational Review*, XXX (May, 1932), 266-72.
Based on questionnaire replies from 284 schools in 42 states. Deals with the extent to which extra-curriculum activities of different types are found and the effect of various factors.
284. RYNEARSON, EDWARD. *Fourth Handbook of the National Honor Society*. Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, No. 42. Berwyn, Illinois: Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association (H. V. Church, Executive Secretary), 1932. Pp. 172.
A manual describing the activities and rituals of a number of local chapters of the National Honor Society and giving information of interest to sponsors of local chapters.
285. SHELDON, DONALD R. "Children's Interests," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXIII (November, 1932), 205-14.
A statistical study of the likes and the dislikes of 1,087 pupils in Grades IV-VIII for school, home, and community activities.
286. SPEER, J. B. "College Fraternities and Their Money Matters," *School and Society*, XXXVI (October, 1932), 517-24.
Describes the effective methods adopted by the business office of the University of Montana to assist fraternities and sororities in managing their business and financial affairs carefully and wisely.
287. STRATTON, J. C. *A Brief History of Student Government in Central High School*. Evansville, Indiana: Central High School, 1932. Pp. 38.
Describes the history, organization, and activities of student government at Central High School, Evansville, Indiana.
288. THRASHER, FREDERIC M. "The Boys' Club Study," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, VI (September, 1932), 4-16.
Discusses the scientific evaluation of institutions and describes the organization and methods employed in the intensive evaluation of the work of six boys'-club units.
289. WELLING, RICHARD. "National Self-Government Committee, Inc.," *Education*, LII (May, 1932), 530-31.
A brief statement of the efforts of a group of educational leaders to promote the participation of pupils in school government.
290. WETZEL, WILLIAM A. "Characteristics of Pupil Leaders," *School Review*, XL (September, 1932), 532-34.
Gives the sex, curriculum, reading ability, school marks, and character ratings of fifty-six pupils holding positions of leadership in the Trenton Senior High School of Trenton, New Jersey.

291. WHITLEY, R. L. "Case Studies in the Boys' Club Study," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, VI (September, 1932), 17-30.
A detailed description of the elaborate and painstaking techniques employed to determine the effect of boys'-club work on sixty "problem" boys.
292. WHITNEY, F. L., and ARMENTROUT, W. D. "The Total Load of Students," *Journal of Higher Education*, III (November, 1932), 427-30.
A brief report of the hours spent weekly in curriculum and in extra-curriculum activities by students at Colorado State Teachers College and a comparison of these with similar facts reported in other studies.
293. WIENEKE, KUERT. "A Comparison of Certain Physical Developments of Freshman Athletes and Non-Athletes," *Research Quarterly of the American Physical Education Association*, III (May, 1932), 223-34.
Compares the autumn and spring records in grip strength, back and leg strength, and in lung capacity of eighty-one athletes and eighty-one non-athletes at Pennsylvania State College.
294. YOUNG, ERLE FISKE. "The German Youth Movement," *Sociology and Social Research*, XVI (March-April, 1932), 367-79.
A brief historical and critical sketch of the organizations and activities of the German Youth Movement since 1896. Suggestive and stimulating reading for the supervisors of American student organizations.

Educational Writings

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

Provision for the individual at the college level.—A quarter of a century ago Clarence F. Birdseye, a layman, reviewed college education in America and concluded that it was not sufficiently effective. He consequently proposed a reorganization and a reorientation of college education from the point of view of the training of individual students so that they might be enabled to find themselves and that they might be trained for efficient citizenship in the broadest sense. Since that time this point of view has received much attention. Numerous psychological studies have pointed out and emphasized the individual differences among college students with respect to capacities, interests, and needs, and many colleges and universities have busied themselves trying to establish programs of instruction and college life that would be in accord with the facts in the situation. During the past few years there has been an increasing interest in this movement.

A recent publication¹ brings together a group of twenty papers on the individual in college education. These papers are organized under six rather inclusive topics. (1) The first three papers deal with assumptions underlying individualization, psychological bases of individualization, and fundamental values in personnel work. (2) Three papers on selecting, classifying, and advising students present plans employed by the University of Minnesota, the University of Wisconsin, and the University of Chicago. (3) Curriculum provisions for individualizing instruction are discussed in four papers. The first presents a general survey of the efforts to individualize college education through the adjustment of the curriculum and techniques of instruction, and the other three describe practices in Antioch College, in the University of Chicago, and in the new Junior College of the University of Minnesota. (4) The next group of papers are concerned with the steps taken to adapt specific courses and types of training to individual needs. The results of experiments conducted by teachers of English composition in the University of Chicago are stated; thirteen ways are related whereby teachers have tried to reach the individual student in the first-year elementary sequences in French and Spanish in the College of the University of

¹ *Provision for the Individual in College Education*. Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions, 1932, Vol. IV. Edited by William S. Gray. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1932. Pp. viii+262. \$2.00.

Chicago; and evidence regarding the reading habits of college students and the types of training provided for poor readers is summarized. There is also a discussion of the use of objective tests in determining the needs and progress of individuals. (5) Health, living conditions, and financial aid in relation to the individual are dealt with in three papers. These papers contain much information from a variety of sources showing how colleges and universities attempt to help their students in important matters outside the curriculum that promote the students' welfare and their opportunities for utilizing to a high degree the facilities for study offered by the institutions. (6) Three papers report on a part of the Minnesota Athletic Survey made in 1930, on the policy of the University of Chicago regarding student activities, and on the problem of providing for the religious needs of students.

Rarely does one find such a splendid collection of papers on current problems in higher education. These papers have been written by men whose leadership is recognized, and they report interesting efforts that are now under way in institutions of higher learning to adapt their programs of work and living to the individual needs and capacities of students. The field has been well covered as to the scope of subjects included. The principal limitation is that a number of the papers describe practices in only one institution rather than in a group of institutions. However, this limitation is not necessarily to be regarded as a shortcoming since the majority of the papers so limited describe practices that are pioneer efforts, while others illustrate practices now generally followed in the more progressive institutions.

L. E. BLAUCH

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF DENTAL SCHOOLS
CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

A personal point of view in education.—It is axiomatic that the successful performance of any function in the school must depend on the clarity with which it is defined in the minds of those who administer it. Guidance is one function which has suffered from conflicting and ambiguous definitions. To the mind of the present reviewer, one of the most harmful of the conceptions of guidance is the view that it is synonymous with education. If that is true, why guidance?

From the pen of one long associated with the guidance movement has recently come a volume¹ devoted to such an interpretation of guidance. The first two sentences of the Preface read as follows: "In spite of the elaborate nature of our present school and college machinery, most educators would agree that the final purpose of it all is simply that students may learn to live better lives. This is essentially the guidance aim" (p. vii). Rather consistently it is held that, if the teacher, counselor, or principal will but direct instruction toward the modification of conduct, he will be performing guidance. Only in chapter xi,

¹ John M. Brewer, *Education as Guidance: An Examination of the Possibilities of a Curriculum in Terms of Life Activities, in Elementary and Secondary School and College*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1932. Pp. x+668. \$2.75.

"Vocational Guidance—Later Phases," is there any extended consideration of guidance as aiding pupils in the selection of vocation.

It is the thesis of Professor Brewer that the "so-called standard subjects or fields of knowledge" (p. vii) actually are obstacles to genuine education (or guidance) and that learning to live is the only true curriculum. The activities of living he classifies in the following categories: education, home relationships, citizenship, vocation, leisure and recreation, personal well-being, religion, miscellaneous. Permeating each and all of the activities of life are the attitudes of life, of which he designates the following as major: ethical, thoughtful, co-operative, wholesome, cultural. Following a general explanation of this point of view are chapters examining "alleged aims of education," showing the need for guidance (really the need for education), and expounding the author's views of curriculum-making and methods in guidance (in reality, methods of teaching). The bulk of the volume is devoted to chapters relative to "guidance" in each of the aforementioned fields of activity and in each of the attitudes. All the chapters on activities have analyses, covering two or four pages each, showing the "skilled activities" needed by the pupil, together with parallel columns of the "technical knowledge" and the "wisdom" accompanying each skilled activity. The author advocates the gradual abandonment of classes in current subjects of study and the establishment of classes in each of the fields of activity which he describes.

The method of this treatise is wholly subjective. In fact, the author says plainly that his work is written for the purpose of expounding his own point of view. Accordingly, argumentation and theory-spinning abound. With a task so comprehensive and a method so personal, it is not surprising that frequently the discourse is homiletic, the authoritarian note is sounded, and the little prejudices and antipathies of the author are revealed. Although, in keeping with the author's purpose, no bibliographies are given, the volume is not without reference and quotation; from a wide range of sources the author selects targets for his criticisms or supports for his arguments.

The chief value of this book lies in its criticism of the view of education as the absorption and storage of knowledge.

PERCIVAL W. HUTSON

UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH

The social adjustments of Freshman college girls.—In a period in which the importance of social adjustment, character, good manners, and personality is increasingly realized, it is opportune to find another study in the field.¹ An earlier study by the same author (*Concerning Our Girls and What They Tell Us*, reviewed in the *School Review* in February, 1931) was a contribution of related na-

¹ Eugenie Andruss Leonard, *Problems of Freshman College Girls: A Study of Mother-Daughter Relationships and Social Adjustments of Girls Entering College*. Child Development Monographs, No. 9. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. Pp. 140.

ture, and there have been a few other scholarly studies of the social adjustment of adolescents.

In the present instance material was gathered at Syracuse University and was based on a questionnaire submitted to one hundred Freshman girls, interviews given by fifty girls who had answered the questionnaire, and an identical questionnaire sent to the mothers of the girls who took part in the study. The questions concerned the life of a Freshman girl outlined under ten major heads, as, for example, recreation, clothes, use of money, girl and boy friendships. The responses gathered have been carefully scored and the results assembled in tables, one for each of the sixty-eight scheduled questions. The major part of the book is given to the presentation of these tables, each table being followed by an interpretation of the data. Two of the opening chapters outline the methods used in the study and correlate the scores on the questionnaire with health ratings of the students, with academic marks, with size of home city, and with other factors. The author regards her questionnaire and its method of scoring as an initial attempt at measuring the traits of social adjustment. A concluding chapter reproduces voluntary statements that the girls made regarding what they thought a girl should know and should have done before she left home for college.

The investigation has been carried on with painstaking care, in the scientific spirit, and with the advice and criticism of a number of competent groups and individuals. The implications and conclusions presented in the final chapter are not startling nor contradictory of findings by other investigators, with the possible exception of the following two: (1) There was found to be a high degree of vocational determinism. (2) A high correlation appeared between ratings on the intelligence test and the scores on the questionnaire—a fact which suggests that girls with average or low school marks should be even more consciously prepared for campus problems than the “bright” girl. The book offers food for thought to parents, parent study groups, and high-school authorities in that it shows that social or non-academic preparation for college life should extend over the full three or four years of high-school life and that, as part of this preparation, it is most essential that young people be given information and training on certain matters, such as the handling of money and the management of the sex instinct. One encouraging and significant finding was the intense and intelligent interest shown by the parents.

FRANCES VALIANT SPEEK

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The library in the junior college.—An indication of the development of the junior college is the appearance not only of books which treat of the junior college as a whole but also of books devoted to single aspects of junior-college work. Representative of such publications is a small manual concerned with the junior-college library.¹ The appearance of this manual is timely, for up to the present

¹ Ermine Stone, *The Junior College Library*. Chicago: American Library Association, 1932. Pp. xii+98. \$1.75.

there has been no comprehensive treatment of the library in the junior college. The author states that the purpose of the volume is "to correlate the existing literature on the subject and to interpret current trends in administration in the light of the author's experience as librarian of two junior colleges" (p. 1).

Discussed in the manual are such varied subjects as the functions of the junior-college library, its staff, its book collection, publicity for the library, library instruction, stimulating interest in reading, and co-operation with the faculty. To discuss completely these and the other topics treated would be impossible within the pages of a manual as brief as the present one. The writer has rather chosen "to concentrate on building up a respectable body of theory than to devote space to technical matters" (p. 2).

In carrying out her aim, the author repeatedly presents statements of policy which may well guide junior-college administrators and librarians in organizing the libraries of their schools. She emphasizes the importance of the library in the instructional program of the college. She gives suggestions regarding library finance and presents specific examples of budgets for junior-college libraries. Stress is given to the importance of instruction in the use of books and also to the necessity of stimulating in junior-college students an interest in reading.

In any comprehensive treatment of the junior-college library consideration must be given to two varied concepts of the junior college: first, the junior college as a unit of secondary education and therefore closely related to the high school in function and character and, second, the junior college as a unit of higher education and similar in type to the four-year college. Miss Stone suggests that "junior-college administrators and educators may be inclining to the opinion that the first two years of college belong in the field of secondary administration" (p. 2). She feels, however, that librarians regard the junior-college library as more closely approximating that of the small college than that of the secondary school. Throughout the manual she therefore treats the junior-college library much as she might have treated the library in a four-year college. In fact, the reader is at times tempted to raise a question whether, in the mind of the author, there is any essential difference between the library of a junior college and that of a four-year college.

The present manual should prove of value not only to the librarian but especially to the junior-college administrator. In a distinctly non-technical manner it suggests to the latter principles which are important if the library is to function effectively.

B. LAMAR JOHNSON

STEPHENS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA, MISSOURI

Help in planning buildings for junior high schools.—This book of standards for junior high school buildings¹ extends the series developed by G. D. Strayer and N. L. Engelhardt under the titles *Standards for Elementary School Buildings* and

¹ N. L. Engelhardt, *Standards for Junior High School Buildings*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. Pp. vi+162.

Standards for High School Buildings. These standards have been developed to accompany the "Strayer-Engelhardt Score Card for Junior High School Buildings," which in turn is one of a series of score cards by the same authors. The other score cards are for elementary-school buildings, for high-school buildings, and for village and rural school buildings. In the Introduction to the present book the author discusses the use of standards, the method of scoring, and the recording of the results of a building survey. The types of space provisions in the floor plans of one hundred junior high schools are shown by departments in a five-page table, and a copy of the score card for the junior high school is included. A chapter is given to the presentation and discussion of standards under each of the following topics: site, building, service systems, classrooms or recitation rooms, special classrooms, general service rooms, and administration rooms. The Bibliography lists books dealing with the junior high school and its problems and literature on the use of score cards for school buildings.

The standards presented in this book are not the product of any one person. All the educational and architectural literature concerning junior high schools and junior high school buildings has been drawn on. Many of these writings are based on carefully planned investigations involving accurate measurement. Where objective standards have not been available, the thinking of persons engaged in school work and in the planning and the construction of school buildings has been utilized. The author recognizes that changes in standards will take place after the publication of this book; he writes that it is his hope that those who use this publication in planning construction will be stimulated to a consideration of every phase of the planning of junior high school buildings. He believes that the educator and the architect, working together in the development of buildings which will fit the present and the future needs of society, will of necessity make further contributions to the development of standards.

This book is particularly thorough in scope, is carefully classified, and contains under each subdivision the many detailed items essential to a complete evaluation of a school plant. These standards are presented in a manner, however, to make them most useful in the preparation of the plans for new buildings.

OSMAN R. HULL

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA

Books on creative writing for high-school pupils.—The movement to promote creative writing among superior pupils in high school has been hindered by a dearth of textbook materials concerned primarily with the urge to write, with the stimulation of self-expression, with the recognition of the sources of expression in one's own experience, and only secondarily with the techniques of literary form. *Creative Writing*² admirably meets the need for such materials. The authors state that the book is intended to serve not as a substitute for English

² Mabel L. Robinson, in collaboration with Helen Hull, *Creative Writing: The Story Form*. Chicago: American Book Co., 1932. Pp. xvi+330. \$1.00.

composition but as an additional stimulus to the pupil, as a creative outlet for expressional activities sometimes neglected in the "more academic" work of the high school. Opening with chapters on the motives of writing, the sources of material, the adaptation of those materials to groups of various ages (from the little child to the high-school boy and girl), the writers present lively, interesting, and non-technical discussions of the kinds of stories that pupils might be interested in writing: narratives of home, of school, or of animals; the adventure story; the fairy tale; and the mystery story. Interspersed also are concretely helpful chapters on how to be interesting (style) and how to make characters live and talk. Always the boy and the girl, the youthful experience, and the fun of the finished story predominate over the admonitions of the rhetorician. Yet the elements of effective narration are clearly set forth, together with the necessity for hard work and keen observation. The chapter on the place of the senses in experiencing is one that for adolescent readers should enrich not only literature but life.

The book is straightforward and interesting in style and is addressed directly to boys and girls. It is full of effective illustration, including eight representative stories of the types discussed in the earlier chapters. Useful either for class work for superior groups or as enrichment material for the individual pupil, *Creative Writing* is a volume which will inspire adolescent writers to effort, to sincerity of expression, and to a feeling for the values of literature as measured by its power in communicating experience to others. Not least among its contributions is its constant linking of successful writing with appreciative reading. Clearly and entertainingly it sets forth concrete standards for the evaluation of what one reads, making an enticing plea for the reading of stories which will aid one to add imaginatively to one's acquaintances with persons, times, countries, and adventures.

Creative Writing of Verse seems a misnomer for the recent handbook on poetics by H. Augustus Miller, Jr.¹ Aside from four pages on the soul of poetry and six on originality of expression, its two hundred odd pages are devoted to discussion, definition, and illustration of various forms of verse and versification. The opening chapters on rhythm include a consideration of meter and cadence, with analyses of poetic feet such as the anapaest and dactyl, and their attendant variations in catalexis and anacrusis. These are followed by a treatment of melodic devices (rhyme, refrain, onomatopoeia, and the like) and a detailed discussion of the subdivisions of the four familiar types of poetry: narrative, lyric, dramatic, and didactic. The volume closes with an analysis of symbolical expressions (simile, metaphor, personification, and others) and a group of "poem forms," including the sonnet, the cinquain, the limerick, the triolet, the rondeau, the rondel, the villanelle, and the ballade. At the end of the book one reads with perplexed curiosity the italicized injunction to the high-school pupil not to confuse versifying with poetry.

¹ H. Augustus Miller, Jr., *Creative Writing of Verse: A Constructive Study of Poetry*. Chicago: American Book Co., 1932. Pp. xvi+190.

As a reference aid to an advanced college student specializing in poetic forms, the handbook undoubtedly is of value. So far as the high-school pupil is concerned, it would seem to violate most of the principles of creative writing in the secondary school.

DORA V. SMITH

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

Reorganized mathematics for the junior high school.—Although most workers in the field of mathematics at the junior high school level agree that the distribution of algebra material throughout the three years is desirable, the insistence of college-entrance officials that the student submit a "unit of algebra" has prevented textbook-writers from arranging their material in the best manner. A recent textbook series for junior high school mathematics¹ shows what, it may be hoped, is the beginning of a turning toward the sounder organization. The series in question, of which only the first two books were examined, includes for the seventh and eighth years material on each of the four basic topics of elementary algebra, namely, graphs, formulas, equations, and directed numbers. The treatment of the last-named topic, in the eighth-grade book, is about as complete as that usually found in the typical ninth-grade algebra.

While the treatment of the algebraic material represents the most interesting feature of the series under review, the books have several other important merits. Adequate evaluation of a textbook requires more time (and the report more space) than is available to the reviewer, but some of the outstanding characteristics of this series may be briefly mentioned.

Excellent provision is made for individual differences without making too obvious the distinction between the problems which are to be worked by only the better pupils and the problems which are to be worked by all pupils. In a few cases the "hard" problems do not seem to be much more difficult than the others. Most of the problems seem to be interesting. There is a large amount of discursive material, especially in connection with those topics of arithmetic which are valuable chiefly because of the social information which the pupil acquires. In a few cases the reading seems too difficult, but whether such is the case can be determined only by actual experimentation.

The seventh-grade book gives an unusual approach to percentage. This topic, usually very difficult for pupils, is taught as an extension of ratio. However, the treatment of ratio which immediately precedes the introduction of percentage seems none too thorough. The effectiveness of the whole procedure is, in the opinion of this reviewer, open to serious doubt, but experience may indicate that the presentation is superior to other methods of approach.

The outstanding feature which will commend this series to thoughtful teachers interested in the civic contribution of mathematics is the excellent treatment

¹ Fletcher Durell, J. A. Foberg, and Ralph S. Newcomb, with the co-operation of Vevia Blair, *The New Day Junior Mathematics*: Book One, pp. xii+338+xxiv, \$1.00; Book Two, pp. xii+338+xxviii, \$1.00. New York: Charles E. Merrill Co., 1932.

of the social and informational aspects of arithmetic. The authors have not hesitated to overlap the field of civics, and we find excellent treatment of such topics as what to do with insurance money, the arithmetical aspects of an election, income taxes, the federal budget and other governmental budgets, education as an investment, how checks are cleared, rates of interest usually paid on deferred instalment payments, and how highways are paid for. The more conventional aspects of the usual topics of "business arithmetic" are treated with equal attention to social implications.

Attention should be called to the large amount of intuitive geometry, the provision of periodic reviews of fundamental processes, the use of the tangent in solving simple right triangles, the provision of diagnostic tests in the fundamental processes, and the advantage of a pleasing page. Unfortunately, the book is not bound in such a manner that it will lie open, and the cardboard "geometry tool" found in the pocket in the back of the book will probably not last long if used as often as it ought to be.

OHIO UNIVERSITY, ATHENS, OHIO

H. E. BENZ

A new textbook in American history.—A new textbook in history¹ for the senior high school has unusual merit. It goes a long way toward presenting American history in a manner that conforms both to the newer concepts of curriculum construction and to contemporary interpretations of history.

Eight chronological units, using only half the pages of the book, carry the course through the Civil War. After another unit on reconstruction, four topical units treat the past seventy years. In the first nine units the emphasis is on political history; in the last four, on economic development. The unitary organization makes detailed analysis difficult, but a rough measure shows that the period of the Colonies receives less than 7 per cent of the space (the narratives of discovery and exploration are condensed to four pages and placed in the Appendix); the periods 1763-1815 and 1815-65, about 21 per cent each; and the period after 1865, 50 per cent. Slightly over half the space deals with political history considered broadly; a third, with economic and social development; and an eighth, with wars in an inclusive manner that wastes little space on campaigns and battles.

Excellent as this distribution is, the underlying emphasis is still better. From the opening paragraph the influence of the frontier on American life is kept constantly before the pupil. The political history stresses institutional development to an unusual degree. The concepts presented are "conditioned by the spirit and letter of scholarship" without the usual concessions to what the older teachers have been taught. The sentences are short; the vocabulary is simple; the narrative never wanders from the main point. Best of all, perhaps, is the

¹ William A. Hamm, Henry Eldridge Bourne, and Elbert Jay Benton, *A Unit History of the United States*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1932. Pp. x+846+xliv. \$2.12.

authors' conception that high-school history is not one accepted account to be learned by each pupil but that it is rather a series of developments about which different points of view are possible. Without undue confusion, the significant interpretations of important concepts are made clear, and the pupil is forced to select among them.

The learning exercises are usually thought questions of a worth-while type, not simple recall exercises. The suggestions for other reading refer to excellent materials, frequently books of recent dates and, with a few possible exceptions, those which an eleventh-grade pupil of above-average ability can use. There are a reasonable number of maps, a few pictures, numerous portraits, and some excellent cartoons and charts. The Appendix contains the usual tables, a bibliography, and copies of the Constitution and the Declaration of Independence. The Index is detailed.

The attempt made by the authors to solve some of the problems of the course in American history brings two of these problems into greater prominence. The organization of history by the use of both periods and topics is not based on any particular principle of teaching, although it is a reasonable compromise of conflicting theories. The emphasis on political institutions throughout and the topical social and economic histories in the last half of the book bring into clearer focus than usual the duplications in the courses in American history and American problems.

The Preface states that the textbook is based on the well-known *American History* by Bourne and Benton. A comparison of the two books shows that the connection is slight and that the new book is not merely a revision. The new book contains no highly colored pictures nor other high-pressure sales features, but, as a soundly constructed teaching instrument, it ranks with the very best.

ELMER ELLIS

UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY AND PRACTICE

- ABELSON, HAROLD H. *The Art of Educational Research: Its Problems and Procedures*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1933. Pp. xii+332. \$2.00.
- BOWDEN, HAYGOOD S. *Two Hundred Years of Education: Bicentennial 1733-1933*, Savannah, Chatham County, Georgia. Richmond, Virginia: Press of the Dietz Printing Co., Publishers, 1932. Pp. xvi+382.
- Chesterfield Education: The Record of Four Years of Experiment and Reconstruction*. Prepared by Members of the Staff of the Education Office. Chesterfield, Derbyshire, England: Chesterfield Education Committee (Foljambe Road), 1932. Pp. 312.

- CRUTSINGER, GEORGE M. *Survey Study of Teacher Training in Texas, and a Suggested Program*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 537. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933. Pp. viii+226.
- DE YOUNG, CHRIS A. *Budgetary Practices in Public School Administration*. Northwestern University Contributions to Education, School of Education Series, No. 8. Evanston, Illinois: School of Education, Northwestern University, 1932. Pp. viii+152.
- DUROST, WALTER NELSON. *Children's Collecting Activity Related to Social Factors*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 535. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. Pp. viii+116. \$1.50.
- Education on the Air*. Third Yearbook of the Institute for Education by Radio. Edited by Josephine MacLatchy. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1932. Pp. vi+376. \$3.00.
- The Educational Frontier*. Written in collaboration by William H. Kilpatrick (editor) and Others. New York: Century Co., 1933. Pp. vi+326. \$2.50.
- FRAWLEY, HONORA MARGARET. *Certain Procedures of Studying Poetry in the Fifth Grade*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 539. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. Pp. iv+90. \$1.50.
- GILBERT, LUTHER C. *An Experimental Investigation of Eye Movements in Learning To Spell Words*. Psychological Monographs, Vol. XLIII, No. 3. Princeton, New Jersey: Psychological Review Co., 1932. Pp. viii+82.
- Growth and Development of the Child: Part II, Anatomy and Physiology*. Report of the Committee on Growth and Development, Kenneth D. Blackfan, Chairman. Section I, Medical Service, White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. New York: Century Co., 1933. Pp. xxii+630. \$4.00.
- HUME, SAMUEL J., and FOSTER, LOIS M. *Theater and School*. New York: Samuel French, 1932. Pp. viii+418. \$3.50.
- JUDD, CHARLES H. *Problems of Education in the United States*. Recent Social Trends Monographs. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1933. Pp. xii+214. \$2.50.
- LACEY, JOY MUCHMORE. *Social Studies Concepts of Children in the First Three Grades*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 548. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. Pp. vi+90. \$1.50.
- LAWLER, EUGENE STALLCUP. *A Technique for Computing the Amount of New Aid Required for State Equalization Programs*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 547. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. Pp. viii+46. \$1.50.
- MCLEES, MARY HUNTER. *A Study of the Elementary Teaching Personnel of Hunterdon, Morris, Sussex, and Warren Counties, New Jersey, with Particular Reference to the State Program of Teacher Training*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 512. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. Pp. x+96. \$1.50.
- MONROE, PAUL. *Essays in Comparative Education: Republished Papers*, Vol. II. Studies of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia

- University, No. 15. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. Pp. viii+312.
- MORRISON, HENRY C. *The Evolving Common School*. The Inglis Lecture, 1933. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1933. Pp. 62. \$1.00.
- RANEY, M. LLEWELLYN. *The University Libraries*. The University of Chicago Survey, Vol. VII. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. Pp. xvi+250.
- REEVES, FLOYD W., KELLY, FREDERICK J., and RUSSELL, JOHN DALE. *University Plant Facilities*. The University of Chicago Survey, Vol. IX. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. Pp. xiv+154.
- REEVES, FLOYD W., and OTHERS. *University Extension Services*. The University of Chicago Survey, Vol. VIII. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. Pp. xvi+174.
- REEVES, FLOYD W., and OTHERS. *The University Faculty*. The University of Chicago Survey, Vol. III. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. Pp. xxvi+326.
- REEVES, FLOYD W., and RUSSELL, JOHN DALE. *The Alumni of the Colleges*. The University of Chicago Survey, Vol. VI. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. Pp. xx+126.
- SCHMIDT, G. A. *Vocational Education in Agriculture in Federally-aided Secondary Schools: A Study of Its Instructional and Training Phases*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 534. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. Pp. x+94. \$1.50.
- SMITHIES, ELSIE M. *Case Studies of Normal Adolescent Girls*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1933. Pp. x+284. \$2.00.
- The Teaching of Mathematics in the Secondary School*. Eighth Yearbook of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933. Pp. 264.
- WALLER, J. FLINT. *Outside Demands and Pressures on the Public Schools*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 542. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. Pp. vi+152. \$1.50.

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